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THE
UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE
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VOLUME VIII

1905-06

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University Chronicle

VOL. VIII SEPTEMBER, 1905 No. 1

GOVERNMENT IN THE PHILIPPINES.[1]

HON. WM. H. TAFT.

President Wheeler, ladies and gentlemen of the University of California:—There is nothing, I think, calculated to impress the American with the greatness of his country equal to the experience of a trip from tide-water to tide-water, a trip of five or six days, of four thousand miles, to find that he has reached a country of Americans exactly like that which he left at home; Americans with the same feelings, with the same beauty in the female sex, with the same disposition on the part of the male sex to stand by the county or the State in which he happens to live. Even though the weather be particularly hot or uncomfortable, it is the exceptional case in five years. It is now some five years since I had the pleasure of being present at the University of California, through the courtesy of its then and now President, Mr. Wheeler, when the University took its farewell of Professor Moses, then about to go to the Philippine Islands for the high functions which he there discharged of introducing English education among eight millions of people. The time was April, and therefore I am not properly able to compare the temperature of April with that of July, and, therefore not able to measure the degree of veracity of the male sex of this community.

[1]From stenographic report of a speech made at a University Meeting, Friday, July 7, 1905.

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One of the thoughts that comes into a man's mind when he rises before an audience under academic shades like these is that of how far the influence of such a University as this is apt to count for good in the community. Professor James of Harvard, with whom I have had some disagreements in respect to Philippine matters, is of the opinion that education is not necessarily an aid to morality. And I concur. But I am sure he admits that education united with moral tendencies is certain to make those moral tendencies more effective. Now we are, in this country, at least to one up a tree, in a stage of transition. The enormous expansion in the value and in the resources of the land in the last ten years has made it possible for a great number in the community to accumulate large wealth which must be distributed in the next generation, and which must enable a great many more educated men in the next generation to do that which they would wish to do without being dependent upon earning a livelihood by hands and brains. In other words, the educated leisure class—for lack of a better term—in the next generation is bound to be much larger in proportion to the general population than in the present; that is, it is bound to be so unless the sons of the fathers of to-day inherit with their capacity for making money their intense desire to make it.

Now I wish they would not so desire. I have no fear but that there will remain in this country a sufficient desire to acquire wealth to keep the wheels of industry moving; but it seems to me of the utmost importance to this nation that there should be a large class of men able to live on accumulated capital of previous generations who do not regard the chase of the dollar as the highest aim in life and who do regard the welfare of the public as their particular interest.

Therefore it is of importance that we should have such institutions as this one, which pours out year after year young men of education, of high ideals, who doubtless will

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be able after a few years to give their entire time for the benefit of their fellows and to become an important element in the saving and the safety of this country. We have tendencies in this country which if allowed to rule will guide us over the precipice to destruction, and we must look about to see what are the brakes we must put on. It is not enough of a justification for a man to give up a life of usefulness to the public that he may elsewhere earn a little more money for his children, provided that the position he already occupies is one in which he may give them an education and then turn them out upon the world to earn what they will have a great motive for earning—their own livelihood and their own future. The truth is, and I am sure there is many a father who believes it, the truth is that to-day the heaviest burden that a father can leave to a son is a fortune which will enable him to live in luxury, unless that fortune is accompanied with a teaching of a sense of responsibility to the public and to his fellow men, of responsibility to devote his life industriously to their welfare.

I am not blind to the difficulty in the creation of such a class. There is in the disposition of every man that which leads him, when he has accumulated enough, to continue in easy and pleasant ways. The wealthy young men of this country, however, have not had fair treatment. It is those of us who, when we had got our education, had to hustle beyond that, who had the great advantage in life; because necessity is the spur that overcomes all temptation to luxury and laziness.

When I had the pleasure of speaking to you once before, we were about to undertake a great task, that of establishing a government in the Philippine Islands. We had to do so. What the deficiencies of that government are, I do not this afternoon propose to discuss. No one can be more conscious of these deficiencies than I am, no one knows more of them than those who have had to do with

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the construction and maintenance of that government. But I beg to remind you that the principle upon which that government has been established, even if at times the principle has been ignored or violated, is the principle upon which in past history no other colony or dependent government has been established, and that is the obligation of the mother country, the country assuming to establish the government, of teaching the people over whom it puts a government how to govern themselves.

That proposition depends upon the postulate that the people are not now able to govern themselves. Whether they are or not is a question of fact. If they are, we are mistaken in our procedure. We believe to-day that they are entirely unfit for at least one, two, or three generations to do so. That being the case, then it is our duty to tell them so, and to have them understand that during that time the question will be, not what kind of a government they will have in the future, but what kind of a government they are to have now under the American sovereignty.

Now we have had the disadvantage (it may not be a disadvantage) of differing with our fellows as to the question whether we were right in assuming this sovereignty. But we have gone so far along now in the problem that I venture to say that no administration of the future, whether Republican or Democratic, will venture to depart from that undertaking, and I say this for the benefit of my young Filipino friends who are here to-day, because it is well they should learn the truth. It is well that they should know the cold facts, that they should go home to tell their people and their government and not to write disquisitions on the subject of abstract liberty, which never helped anybody, unless it is liberty regulated by law and liberty furnished practically to every one.

You can strike off a French constitution in a day; but it takes a thousand years to build up a British constitution, a constitution under the laws of which every man

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stands for himself and asserts his own right and does not have to depend on the goodness or beneficence of a government or of officials. That is the difference between Anglo-Saxon liberty and liberty that was enjoyed theoretically under the civilian code in the Philippines. The right of habeas corpus, by which a man can insist upon having a court look into the question of the legality or illegality of his detention—that was the Anglo-Saxon instrument for working out the question of liberty of body. Why, in the Spanish days, they had the declaration in all the Philippine laws that no man should be illegally detained, but it operated on the mind of the judge and the mind and soul of the jailor, and if their minds and souls were a little neglectful the victim continued in jail. If you will notice the charters of liberty, as we call them in English history—the Magna Charta, the Petition of Rights of 1625, the Bill of Rights of 1688—there is not a single declaration in all those charters of an abstract right. Every declaration contained in those charters refers to what we would call in jurisprudence principles of adjective and not substantive law, refers to instruments of law, refers to procedure, and not to general principles. Read a French constitution; you find it is a declaration of principles. Read the British constitution, read the United States constitution, and what do you find? You find that it is not a declaration of principles, but a declaration of procedure which the citizen may avail himself of and which the government cannot take away from him. That represents the difference between the two civilizations. The Anglo-Saxon constitution was practical in giving the individual himself the right to assert his liberty and obtain it; while under the Civilian code, if the government failed, then the citizen was without a remedy. A people who have constantly been brought up under a régime like that of the Spanish, in which the government was everything, in which the machinery of the government was not for the use of the

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individual but for the government, cannot learn civil liberty in a single generation. You can declare and you can furnish the instruments for civil liberty; it would be as if it did not exist.

When you take six millions of people who speak ten or eleven different dialects, where not more than ten per cent. speak any modern European language, it is not to be expected that they can take in in a year, or two years, or three years, indeed that they can take in in any other way than through their educated children, notions of what civil liberty is and of the responsibilities that it imposes on them on the one hand, or on the other hand of the means by which their rights can be asserted. That being the case in respect to our Filipino friends, what is our duty toward them? It is, first, to have them understand that the United States government is supreme in those islands, and that it will be so indefinitely until we work out the problem and fulfill our obligation in teaching them how to govern themselves.

The first step recognized by everybody is the step of their education, and I rejoice to say that the great foundation for our hope that they may be made a self-governing people is the avidity with which the ignorant fathers and mothers and the little children themselves seek the opportunity to learn the English language and to take advantage of the primary education which is now being furnished in the Islands. Some of our critics have said that we were forcing that education down their throats. That is not true. First, because we have no compulsory education law in the Islands—we can have no compulsory law until we have schools enough in which to house the children—we have not schools enough in which to house one-third of the children of school age. But, nevertheless, the number of children has increased. The number of children in the schools the first year was 100,000, the next year 200,000, the third year 263,000, the next year 362,000—that was

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at the beginning of the school year—and now at the end of the school year there are 521,000 children enrolled, speaking, reading, and writing English.

They are a Christian people. The Spaniards, whom we are prone to criticize, did something which neither the Dutch nor the French nor the English have done; they have made six millions of Malay Christians; they made them Christians in two hundred and fifty years and surrounded them with Christian influences. They treated them, it is true, as children; they kept them in a kind of Christian tutelage; but, nevertheless they made the material out of which it is possible for us to make self-respecting and self-governing citizens. Mr. Ireland, Mr. Calhoun, and Mr. Foreman cannot say too much about the lack of wisdom that we have exhibited in our attempt to educate these people, and they are constantly referring to the success that their people have made in English colonies. I do not wish to detract from what they say at all. The success that they have made is in many respects phenomenal; but they utterly lose the point as to what we are trying to do in the Philippine Islands. They are attempting to build up an arbitrary government, one which they can continue in that form, one which will do good for the people, but which shall retain the people in their present state of illiteracy, in their present state of absolute ignorance of the ability to govern themselves, but which shall favor trade for England, France, or Holland, as the case may be. We, on the other hand, having been forced into the situation in which we find ourselves of having these people as wards, are attempting now, because we believe that a popular self-government is in the end the best form of government, to teach these people how to conduct a popular self-government. And we find this material, which other nations have not found—a body of Malay Christians, who, having Christian ideals, look to Europe and America for their highest ideals. That is the difference between the

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problems we have to solve in the Philippines and that which the Englishmen and the Dutchmen claim to have solved in the East Indies.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, you must excuse me for going into the question of the Philippines because I haven't much else to talk about. This is the second speech in twenty-four hours which the hospitality of California has evoked from me, and it is beyond my capacity to make a different speech every twelve hours. We are going, a band of gentlemen earnestly interested in the welfare of the Philippine Islands, to visit those islands. I consider it a great triumph that we have been able to enlist the interest and sympathy of seven distinguished Senators and twenty-three Representatives of the United States, who have been willing at a very considerable expense to each personally, and also at a very considerable cost of time, to devote a hundred days to going out into those Islands, in a season when we must expect storms and rain, in order to know facts concerning them. I think it is an exceptional instance of the degree of self-sacrifice to which our legislators and those who are responsible to us for a government are willing to go.

Now we do not all agree, we in this delegation, on many political points, and it is quite possible we shall disagree in respect to many points in the Philippines. The gentlemen of the party have been invited without regard to their political creed or previous condition of servitude. Although some differ in political creeds, there is every evidence that we are going to get along harmoniously. However we may differ, we know that we must all hang together to enjoy this trip, or we may all hang separately. I think that the trip is one unique in the history of the country; but, of course, we can tell a little better about the usefulness of it after we return. Certainly the spirit in which it has been begun gives every evidence that when we do return we shall find in Congress, of which this will

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be the leaven, a quickening interest as to these wards of ours ten thousand miles away from here, and that we shall all approach the question from a practical standpoint and with a desire to do the best we can for those people.

It gives me great pleasure to express the sense of appreciation of your hospitality that all my companions and myself feel toward you, the kindly people of California, for your expressions of good will, and for the compliment which you do us in coming here in such *unusual* weather to hear a desultory talk.

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THE ACADEMIC LIFE.[1]

AUGUSTUS TABER MURRAY.

It is apparently the view of many of those who hold professorships in our larger universities that it is becoming more and more difficult to hold first-rate men for graduate work. This is seen even in those institutions where graduate scholarships and fellowships are offered. It is easy to find men, and, in our co-educational institutions, men and women, who are eager candidates for such honors. Indeed, it is often said that these things are but baits held out by the universities to attract students, and that without them the graduate schools could hardly be maintained. This is, of course, not true. If it were, dark indeed would be the outlook for American scholarship. The problem is not to find students, but to find and hold the right students—men and women of the highest capacity and of sound training, who have chosen the academic career as the one to which they are ready to devote their lives; and this problem is, in the opinion of many who are qualified to judge, growing more and more difficult of solution.

A natural inference would be that the academic career fails to attract men and women of first-rate ability; and if this is the case the matter is a serious one—serious for us, and fraught with a yet graver danger for the future.

[1]Phi Beta Kappa address, delivered at the annual meeting of the society in Hearst Hall, May 16, 1905.

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I do not assume that I am addressing only actual or prospective teachers, but a consideration of this theme has seemed to me not inappropriate to this occasion. The questions involved directly concern the members of Phi Beta Kappa, and upon them the solution of the problem in no small measure depends.

In the first place we must distinguish between the academic career proper and the mere occupation of the teacher. From one point of view we might say that the latter is distinctly popular. Each year hundreds of graduates from the various universities of our country proceed at once to seek positions as teachers, an astonishingly large percentage, in fact, of the total number of those graduating; but it is, of course, for various reasons and with widely different purposes. In the case of young men there is perhaps always a definite motive. The young man who has reached the age at which most men leave college or the university has no time to lose. He may be far indeed from intending to take up teaching as his life-work; he may hate it. Yet it is something which he can do, or thinks he can do, and it offers him an opportunity to support himself, and by care lay by something; so that after a few years he is able to study law, for example, or medicine, or, in a smaller number of instances where the individual has resolved upon an academic career, to take up studies which will fit him for this;—to realize. it may be, a long-cherished dream of study in Germany. This latter class alone concerns us. Of the others we may say that, while their action has given the high schools of the country the services of many bright and able men and women, it has unquestionably done much to bring the profession of the teacher into disrepute, to cause it to be regarded as a mere makeshift, unworthy of the talents of really able men and women. More than this: it is sometimes held that this profession alone is open to those who have proved a failure in whatever else they have tried.

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It is not worth while to reply to these views. It is enough to say that we are concerned only with those who choose the career of the scholar as their life-work, and that we turn naturally not to the schools, but to the colleges and the universities. This is said with no desire to belittle the work of the schoolmen. Those who are giving up their lives to work in the schools are also engaged in work of vast importance, and their influence for good may be great indeed; and it may be said, in passing, that it would be to the advantage of the state to make this career one to which a man of first-rate ability could devote himself without such utter self-sacrifice as it now requires of him.

Confining our attention then to colleges and universities, we may say at the outset that one choosing this career must be prepared for a life of poverty. This is not only relatively true; it is absolutely true. Of course it may be objected that a man with an income of two or three thousand dollars a year cannot be said to be in absolute destitution. We must recognize that there are millions in our country to whom such a salary would seem princely. But the statement remains none the less true, and that not because we set up false standards of living. The men holding academic positions in our American colleges and universities are, as a class, hard-working, high-minded men, whose problem is not how to provide themselves with luxuries, but how to meet inevitable obligations. They are content to live simple lives, to deny themselves many things which men in mercantile or professional life have come to regard as necessities; but, we must add, many things which to men of similar incomes in other walks of life would be luxuries, are necessities to the college man—they are required of him.

For the day is past when men who in their capacity as scholars are to be numbered with the commonplace, can expect to advance to positions of honor and influence in the academic world. Only men of ability, who by con-

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stant growth seek to keep pace with the advancement of human knowledge in their chosen fields, have the right to hold positions in institutions of high grade; only such can these institutions, in justice to themselves and to the public, retain in their positions. Now, such growth entails serious expense. It is impossible if one but feeds upon himself, as impossible as perpetual motion in the physical world. The scholar must provide himself with the means of growth; he must purchase books and must often subscribe for learned periodicals. He must arrange to meet with other men who are engaged in work in his own field, must keep himself informed as to what they are doing, the problems they are facing and the ways in which they are seeking to solve them. He must as a rule be a member of more than one learned society, and, if he is to derive real good from such membership, must make it possible to attend the meetings of these societies. Yet, omitting for the present all consideration of the expense of travel, it must be confessed that many men in academic positions find it difficult even to pay the dues. As for books, every scholar knows that the accumulation of a working library of one's own is absolutely necessary. True, all of our larger institutions possess libraries, some of them rich already and all of them growing; and public libraries, too, are at every scholar's disposal; but these are not enough. The scholar cannot always work in libraries; he must have books of his own, and not a few of them. He must now and again procure for himself expensive works which he cannot find in any library to which he has access. Especially is this true of scholars on this coast, where our libraries are still young and relatively small. But even in the midst of the greatest libraries, the scholar still feels the need of purchasing books for himself—and books are expensive.

We must take into consideration also the necessity of travel. The constant need of consulting books of itself

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necessitates this. Visits must be paid to the great libraries and laboratories of this country and of Europe, and he who denies himself this privilege, or who is unable from lack of funds to avail himself of it, is in danger of becoming narrow in his work and less efficient. His growth is necessarily stunted.

There are, it is true, hundreds of men in the colleges and universities of America who do not do this, men who are not productive scholars or investigators. They have gone on for years teaching the same subjects by the same methods, and they look forward to nothing else. These men feel no desire to grow, but are content to be what they are and what they have been. These may of course be left out of consideration. They do not represent the academic life, or the academic ideals, of America. The fact that many men of this type are found in our higher institutions of learning is rather to be regarded as a menace to the welfare of these institutions and of the nation at large; for if the young men and women in our universities are to receive only such guidance, stimulus, and inspiration as can be had from men of no higher ideals than these, the outlook for the future is indeed dark.

Here, however, an explanatory statement is needed. I have spoken of productive scholarship, and that may easily be understood as indicating that I am one of those who hold that every few weeks or months some published article must bear witness to a scholar's productivity. Yet I am far from holding this view; nor do I think it wise that pressure should be brought to bear upon men to lead them to rush into print. We have the right to demand that those who call themselves scholars and who occupy chairs in our universities, prove themselves to be scholars; that they engage in study and research and become in the truest sense productive. But to be engaged, it may be for years, in study and investigation leading to the production of a really important work is one thing; constantly to be turning

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out matter which may of itself be trivial, merely for the sake of getting into print, is another and a very different thing. But having said this and admitting, further, the usefulness of the good teacher, I repeat that the non-productive scholar—the man who neither grows nor cares to grow in knowledge and in usefulness—has no proper place in our universities.

This brings me to another and highly important matter, one which concerns all who are interested in the welfare of American scholarship—that, I mean, of the so-called Sabbatical year. That the privilege afforded by this is a necessary one is becoming more and more generally recognized, so that the better ones among even our smaller colleges are endeavoring to make provision for it. The men in our colleges and universities cannot keep abreast of the work that is being done in their departments of learning without such an occasional year's leave in which, relieved from the strain of teaching, they can devote themselves to study and research, and, in particular, can visit the libraries and universities of Europe. How overworked the men in our college faculties are is not generally known, or how great the drain is upon the time and energies of the conscientious teacher. Unless he is periodically relieved of this, such growth as we recognize as desirable or even indispensable is hardly to be looked for. Yet it must be confessed that the terms upon which this leave is ordinarily granted are such that the scholar who has a family can avail himself of it only if he possesses independent means. On one-half or even two-thirds of his salary the man in academic life could not support his family, and travel is out of the question. More liberal provision must be made if the Sabbatical year is to accomplish its purpose. Indeed, it would tend greatly to increase the efficiency of the men who hold positions in our college faculties, if it could be made incumbent upon them to avail themselves of this privilege. Yet how this is to be done without more liberal allowance

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is a problem; and to make more liberal allowance would tax the limited resources of our institutions, barely sufficient even now to meet current expenses.

What I have said in this connection and with regard to the limitations which one who enters upon the academic career must be ready to face, is said on the assumption that a man marries and has children to care for and educate. This is the normal, the natural life; nor should we put a premium upon celibacy. The unmarried man finds his salary adequate; the married man, leading a larger and more natural life, finds larger responsibilities. He has indeed given pledges to fortune. Yet who will deny that it is right and best that he should live this normal life, or that he is entitled to rear his children properly—to secure for them those advantages of culture the value of which he is himself so well able to appreciate. Small wonder, under existing conditions, if he finds himself unable to purchase much-needed books, if he is hampered and thwarted by lack of funds in his endeavors to grow with the growth of human knowledge in his chosen field, and if the Sabbatical year on half-pay is for him out of the question. It may well be that the most rigid economy is necessary in order that he may make both ends meet, and that he is forced to devote to the financial problem not time only, but worry which may well tend in measure to impair his usefulness as a member of the university.

There is still another side to the financial question. The scholar whose salary is inadequate finds himself almost of necessity driven to devote time and energy that should be given to higher things to work done solely with a view to financial returns. He writes for reviews, not always because he has a message which demands expression, but because he is paid for it. He seeks, or at least welcomes, invitations to lecture for the same reason; and in many cases he devotes his scholarship to the business of text-book making. One is almost bewildered as one looks over

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the lists of our educational publishers and sees how constantly work is being done which has been done before, and well done. The publisher knows that a successful text book is a very profitable thing for him, and he will often stoop to methods which are not the most creditable to ensure success in the financial sense. The young scholar is attracted and perhaps flattered by the invitation to prepare the book; if he has gotten beyond that stage, he is none the less conscious that if the book is a success his returns too may, from his standpoint, be considerable. And so, year after year, the energy of many promising men is dissipated in work which, it must be confessed, was not called for and which sometimes seems not worth doing. The foreigner points to this as a disgrace to American scholars: "You are but a class of text-book makers," he says, and says with some justice.

Yet here, too, there is more to be said. The men who produce these text books do it as a rule from no unworthy motive. I doubt not, in the majority of cases, the author honestly believes that his book is called for and that it will make a place for itself on its merits; or he may find that no existing book is adapted to his own needs, and so be led to prepare one. But it must be confessed that a series of text-books, which may be admirable in themselves, cannot be called an adequate net result from the years of study and training which have brought the college or university man to his present position. His university and the world at large have a right to demand better things of him.

But this is a digression from the financial aspect of academic life. There remain facts that every college man who has a family knows from an experience which may in many instances indeed be called bitter. The problem of meeting the demands of modern life on his slender salary; the burden of having to deny not himself alone but his wife and children, privileges which seem to be their right—all these things could be enumerated; and to these

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must be added the inevitable worry resulting from the fact that he realizes his inability to carry adequate life insurance or to make provision for old age or possible incapacity. By no means all even of our largest universities have established systems whereby provision is made for pensioning men after long periods of service; and yet without some such provision the future of the man who chooses the academic career is not one of promise. Old age may be beautiful, but poverty hardly; and college men are only too often forced to look forward to the latter as an accompaniment of old age—an accompaniment as inevitable as old age itself.

It is to be admitted that the thought of being pensioned is not a pleasant one. Yet that, after serving an institution of learning for the best years of one's life, one should then in old age, after the productive period of life may seem to be past, accept a reasonable salary for past rather than present services, surely brings no disgrace and necessitates no forfeiture of self-respect. But if our universities are to relinquish this duty—for duty it is, if the present scale of salaries is to be maintained—and leave it to Mr. Carnegie to provide for the old age of men in academic life, then the profession is indeed being pauperized, and men of ability and of nice feeling may well prefer other fields.

This is said without any thought of denying the wisdom or the generosity which prompted Mr. Carnegie's charity; but a charity it is; and no institution has a right to shrink from its own obligations to the men who have served it long and faithfully, and bid them accept the charity of another.

But no more of finance. I may seem already to have said too much and to have given the unsympathetic listener the right to assume that the college professor thinks first of financial returns. But this is not so; nor is it my purpose either to dissuade young men and women from enter-

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ing upon academic careers on the ground that the emoluments are insufficient, or to record a plea for more liberal treatment. It is rather to state frankly that, despite this fact, the academic life is one to attract high-minded men and women, is one that offers much and is full of opportunities.

But before touching upon this side of the question we must notice another phase which is not to be disregarded. It is often held that the academic life is a narrow life. The scholar who shuts himself up in his library or his laboratory seems to be cut off from the great world and its multifarious enterprises. He wields, it is often said, no great influence; men call him unpractical, unable to take a large view of affairs, unqualified for leadership in all matters which touch upon life directly. The financier, the statesman, the engineer, the jurist, aye the politician of the better sort—these, we are told, are the men who wield a real influence; and when set over against their manifold activities, the quiet, cloister-like life of the scholar seems only too often to shrink into relative insignificance. So the much-abused, much-defamed title of "professor" has become one which is bestowed often with disparagement or good-humored condescension, as though not overmuch should be expected of the one holding it. He bears, as do many other harmless and perhaps even ornamental things, including toys for children, the trade-mark "made in Germany." He may be tolerated, and, by some well-meaning people, even encouraged, but taken seriously, no.

Now let me ask you to turn for a moment to the other side of the picture. Hundreds of those who have chosen, or who may choose the academic career, will continue to find it an ideal life, a life which they choose gladly and with a full recognition of the sacrifices it entails. It is a large and not a narrow life, one that brings a man into close association with high-minded, unselfish men and women, one in which he labors for high ends. These things

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are worth the sacrifice of other things such as the successful business or professional man may have always at his command. The life of the university man is, or should be, a genuinely cultured life, bringing to high natures those delights and joys which one absorbed in mercantile life can only in the rarer instances know. More than this: to seek for truth is a high calling, worthy of the best that is in any man; and this is one of the ends to which the scholar devotes himself. It is to him that the world owes its conquest of new truth, and if his is the long and toilsome search, his is also the joy of discovery. This, of course, holds true primarily of investigators in the field of pure science, for it is they above all others who force Nature to yield to men her secrets; but they are not the only truth seekers. In every field of knowledge—in science, pure and applied, in philosophy, in history, in philology, rightly understood—men of ability and of training are engaged in essentially the same work, and humanity's debt to them all is immeasurable. It is immeasurable not only when the researches of the chemist lead to results of far-reaching importance in the industrial world; when the engineer reclaims arid districts, or by instituting elaborate systems of drainage or by perfecting sanitation changes what had been a hot-bed of disease to a wholesome district, fit for human habitation; when the bacteriologist solves the mystery of plague and pestilence and frees whole communities from their ravages; but also in fields in which the immediate bearing of the truth thus won may be less apparent.

This love of truth for its own sake and this disinterested search for it is an element and perhaps the fundamental element of true culture. It should beget a broadness of view, a spirit of tolerance. It does not always do so. Indeed we have all seen scholars, whose achievements have made their names known far and wide, who lack this largeness of mind, who can see apparently but one aspect of

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truth, and who undervalue or even consciously belittle the work of scholars in other fields. But these men, despite the brilliancy of their achievements, are not typical; they do not represent the academic life at its best. Nor may the pedant, so completely absorbed in study as to take no interest in what is going on in the world, be considered representative. He too has his place, and his work may be of great value; but we look for other characteristics in the men of our colleges and universities, and we may add, we find them.

For the American college or, let me say, the American university is not merely a place where research is carried on under trained specialists. It is this, of course, else it is not a university; but it is not merely this, nor merely a mill for the grinding out of doctor's degrees. It is surely also a place where young men—and, I am glad to say, young women too—receive a training that is to fit them for life, and receive it, not at the hands of narrow, pedantic, dry-as-dusts, but at the hands of trained and devoted *men*. The scholar who is not in the truest sense a man cannot perform his full duty as a member of the faculty of an American university. It is his duty to his special department of learning and to the university that he show himself a productive scholar, one by whose labors the fund of human knowledge is actually increased; but it is just as truly his duty, his duty to the university again and to the students under him, to the nation at large and to himself, that he show himself a *man*. For he is in a position where the qualities of true manhood tell tremendously. It is his privilege not simply to impart to others the knowledge which he has himself acquired, although this in the case of a true scholar, whose special studies have not narrowed his sympathies, should prove a delight and not an irksome task,—it is, I say, his privilege not simply to teach, but to exert upon the lives of young men and young women in their formative period an influence which is, or may be,

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past measuring. He will lead them to love truth for its own sake and to be persistent and fearless in their search for truth; to cherish idealism in the face of the facts of daily experience, however grim these may be; to love the beautiful and to be quick to see it wherever it may be found; and, finally, to build up character in the truest sense. If he does not do this he fails in his duty and misses, to this extent, his opportunity.

Doubtless all of us here present think with love and it may be with veneration of great teachers under whose influence we have come. Some of you who may now be leaving this institution, having completed your university course, carry this feeling with you as you go. Others of us, whose college days lie further back, have cherished it for years. It may be the privilege of the men who choose academic careers to win for themselves this place in the regard of those who come under their influence. If devotion to truth rules *their* lifes, if *they* are free from intellectual arrogance, if *they* are broad, generous, sympathetic, fearless *men,* they will win this. But even without consciousness of this or of any other return, they are none the less rendering service to humanity—they are of use in the world.

I speak in the presence of young men and women some of whom doubtless are looking forward to an academic life. I ask you if, despite the sacrifices which it may entail upon you, there are not compensations,—if it is not indeed a life of large opportunities. It will probably continue to be true that some of your Phi Beta Kappa brethren who choose other careers will meet with richer returns in the way of material things; your friends of Sigma Xi will doubtless in most instances do this; but you will not forget that even highly trained engineers have been known to give up the rich emoluments which would surely be theirs in the practice of their profession, and have preferred academic careers. For here, as in the spiritual life, man does not live by bread alone.

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THE CALL OF DUTY.[1]

REV. CHAS. R. BROWN.

Members of the Graduating Class: I wish to speak to you on "The Call of Duty," and for a text you may take those words from the lesson just read—"At midnight there was a cry, 'Behold, the Bridegroom cometh! Go ye out to meet him.'"

There is a tender pathos in this story where my text stands. The scene was a wedding feast full of bright and joyous suggestion. Those on whom the interest centers were all young—ten maidens, chosen, as bridesmaids commonly are, because they were young and fair and interesting. And to that situation as to every situation in life there came the supreme call of duty.

When it came, some were prepared for it and they that were ready went in to the marriage; some were unprepared and because of that fact they were shut out. They all had made some preparation; they were all present at the place where a certain service was to be rendered; they all had on their wedding garments; they all had lamps with them, but some had not made sufficient preparation; they had no oil in their lamps and when the hour came they lacked fitness and adequacy for the task in hand. At midnight the cry rang out, "Behold, the Bridegroom com-

[1] Baccalaureate address to the graduating class, delivered in the Greek Theatre, University of California, Sunday, May 14, 1905.

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eth! Go ye out to meet him;" but some of the lamps had gone out for lack of oil. Thus the call of duty drew the line between the wise and the foolish.

Five of them had taken thought in advance for the obligation which was sure to come and were ready; five of them had carelessly postponed any adequate preparation for what might be expected of them and they were shut out. It is in regard to that testing which goes on by the many calls of duty which come as inevitably as sunrise and sunset that I want to speak to you. Ever and anon the cry breaks in upon our sleep, our preoccupation or our pleasure, "Behold, the Bridegroom cometh," and our adequacy or our lack of it stands immediately revealed.

This sense of duty is an echo of the voice of God. Moral obligations are not abstract or conventional or disconnected notions which have somehow gotten into our minds; they are not mere matters between a man and his fellows or a man and himself; they have their sanctions on high, they reach up into that moral order whose line is gone out into all the world; they are the joints and sections in that spiritual purpose, which is from everlasting to everlasting. It is the sense of duty which knits the life into unity, which sets the individual in honorable and fruitful relations with others, which binds up the life of man with the life of God. It was therefore no mere local or temporary situation uttering this call of duty—it was the voice of the Eternal saying to those who had been appointed to a particular service, "Behold, the Bridegroom cometh! Go ye out to meet him."

You will find all this clear and strong in the life of the Representative Man, the Son of Man. The words with which Christ broke the silence which covers his early years are profoundly significant. He was in the temple at Jerusalem and his first recorded saying was: "I must! I *must* be about my Father's business!" And his first address in public in the synagogue at Nazareth sounded the same note —"The Spirit of the Lord is upon me because he hath

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annointed me to preach good tidings to the poor, to bind up the broken hearted, to preach deliverance to the captives and to set at liberty them that are bruised." There was the sense of mission and of responsibility for the needs of his day. In the full maturity of his powers it was the same—he looked out upon the necessities of men, the disease and blindness, the ignorance and superstition, the want and the sin, and in the face of it all he cried, "I *must* work the works of Him that sent me while it is day." And, when the end drew near and he saw a violent death written in black letters in the hatred and opposition of wicked men, he said, "The Son of Man *must* be crucified." He lived and wrought with the sense of mission from on high, the sense of obligation and of responsibility for others, all the way through from that first boyish word in the Temple up to Calvary. This was the life of the Representative Man, and it is the normal life of all serious men. At every moment from high noon until midnight the cry is sounding out, "Behold! great necessities are upon you. Go ye out to meet them."

I will name only a few of these calls of duty which seem to me the more important:

I. *The General Call of Christian Life and Service.*

I enter into no sectarian or dogmatic questions, but I undertake to say that you cannot describe to me a better life than the life genuinely dominated by the spirit that was in Jesus Christ. If you could, I would instantly lay aside this gospel and begin to preach yours. And the moral obligation resting upon every one to live the best life he knows is perfectly plain. He must lay hold upon all the divine help offered; he must put himself in those relations with his fellows which are best; he must take that personal attitude which means the utmost growth and usefulness, if he would retain his moral self-respect. Into the ordinary round of life the call comes, "Behold! the Master of spirit-

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ual values. Go ye out to meet him." We are summoned by the demand of the situation to show forth his spirit than which there is no higher; to do his work than which there is no better and to lend aid to the establishment of his kingdom of which there is to be no end. This is the plain call of duty.

The main difference in people is not that some are sincere and some are hypocrites. The conscious, deliberate hypocrites are so few as not to be really taken into account. The main difference is that some people take the call of duty seriously and devote themselves in thorough-going fashion to the task of becoming adequate, while others take it lightly and carelessly. The foolish virgins did nothing positively wicked; they did not stone the bridal procession or insult the bride or steal the refreshments; they simply neglected adequate preparation for doing their duty; they were sent to be light bearers, but when the hour struck they were all in darkness.

The greatest obligation in life is that of fitting oneself to meet the legitimate demands of any situation where one may be called to live. Some generous impulse may flame up and burn for an hour; but its lamp is soon gone out. Only established principle, well-grounded character and convictions which root down into fundamentals, will stock the lamp so that it will burn until midnight and on through the small hours till the morning.

They used to say of the Duke of Wellington, "He does his duty as naturally as a horse eats oats." It was a high tribute, but the Duke in order to show that fine quality began his preparation a long time before he reached the war, which culminated in splendid victory at Waterloo; and in order to maintain it he had to have his lamp of moral energy filled perpetually from a source that was unfailing. The largest lamp will soon burn out unless its bowl is replenished; the strongest life will sometime fail unless it is refurnished with motive, stimulus and spiritual

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power during the long hard hours which lead up to some midnight in the soul. The prophet in his vision saw a golden lamp burning brightly and on either side of it a live olive tree feeding its oil steadily into the bowl of the lamp. In similar fashion the man who is to show evenly Christ's spirit and do regularly Christ's work and advance steadily Christ's kingdom, must stand in such relation to the living God that his inner life will be perpetually replenished from that infinite source of life.

II. *The Call of Some Particular Crises.*

The unexpectedness of the summons is emphasized because it enters naturally into the result—it came at midnight. In like manner you may be moving quietly upon your way when some crisis makes a supreme demand upon you. It may come in the way of temptation. The young man finds himself in a group of jolly good fellows who are most enjoyable, but who in the long run are the enemies of sobriety, manliness and genuine achievement. He may find himself alone with some handsome woman, who has charm, but lacks principle. He may stand in a situation where some dishonest trick may bring him great gain or where an immediate advantage will be gained by a lie. He may in spite of Christian training and inheritance feel the tide setting away from righteousness and godliness—he is tempted to drift rather than swim for it against the current. In such situations, as you know, hundreds of young men go down in moral defeat. They were not ready; they had not sufficient oil in their lamps. They might have had; they had been repeatedly urged to make their moral resources adequate to whatever demands might be made; but they had neglected it. The hour came and the call rang out, "Behold! the Bridegroom;" but their lamps had gone out and they slunk away in moral darkness.

It may come in some emergency of personal responsibility. Your friend or some member of your household is

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going wrong; you see it and would cut off your right hand to aid him, if cutting off your hand would do any good. You would give anything to be able to go to him and have your own appeal reënforced by a record of Christian steadfastness; you would be glad to show him a face in which the lines of Christian interest in the souls of men were deeply and clearly drawn; you wish you might offer a prayer on his behalf, which would bring to bear upon the situation those spiritual forces which can be effectively wielded only through years of heroic and devoted living. This one in whose welfare you feel such an interest is your son, or your husband, or your brother; his need of help in that hour of his falling away is like the call of God. But the lamp which ought to have been burning with a steady flame has gone out. You are not ready and the crisis finds you wanting.

It may come in some personal crisis. Your health fails and you face a possible life of invalidism and inactivity; you meet with business reverses and in an hour of discouragement you are tempted to fling principle and perhaps life itself to the winds; or death enters your home and all the light fades out of your sky no matter how the sun shines elsewhere. Thus there comes a supreme call for patience and heroism, for fidelity and steadfastness. To meet such a crisis is like going out to meet the Son of God face to face. Alas! for you, if it finds your mind without faith, your heart without grace, your will not reënforced by a sense of its harmony with the divine will. You will need oil in your lamp or such an hour will cast you into the outer darkness. These tests come soon or late to us all and they determine whether we are to stand with the wise or with the foolish.

III. *The Call to Some Definite Service.*

The demands which the world has a right to make upon University men and women are many. It looks to them

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for intellectual seriousness, thoroughness and honesty. We are living in the twentieth century and, if we listened to the orators without looking at the facts, we might fancy that the sunlight of intelligence was shining everywhere; but in the face of the mass of humbug and delusion, superstition and dogmatism there is sore need of those qualities just named. The plain facts of physiology and hygiene, of sanitary science and sound philosophy are tossed out of the window almost contemptuously on the strength of some flighty bit of sentiment. Great numbers of men are hurried away into the swamp in pursuit of some political or economic will-o'-the-wisp, whose unreality has been demonstrated by wide areas of experience. Nostrums and patent medicines of all sorts, physical, mental, industrial and political, are swallowed wholesale to the great detriment of our individual and corporate well-being. Poor dumb fools go on butting their brains out against the moral corner-stones of the universe in the vain supposition that the way of the transgressor may not be hard. With all our boasted progress and all the splendid facilities for knowing better, there is a vast amount of all this. At midnight the cry rings out, "Behold! the call of duty; go ye out to meet it," with that intellectual seriousness and honesty, which the world has a right to expect of University men and women!

There is also the call of Civic Responsibility. It is a splendid task to share in the administration of the affairs of a city; to provide the people with protection against fire, thieves and other enemies of their peace; to provide a system of sewerage that shall keep the city pure and wholesome; to see that the streets are kept clean, smooth and safe for the swift movement of city life; to furnish parks, play-grounds and a system of free education through rightly conducted schools and libraries—what a splendid task it is! How it ought to call out the best character and ability the city has, as with a word of the Lord! It is a service which ought to be ranked on a level with any Christian work a man could do!

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But you know how many wise and good men decline this obligation. "Politics are vile," they say. "Office holding is an abomination; caucuses and primaries are unclean things." So men say and the whole slur cast upon the sacred task of self-government is false and cowardly. At midnight, at the hour when the situation looks dark, because of the corruption of bad men and the apathy of good men, the call comes to University graduates, "Behold! the Bridegroom cometh,"—the One, who looked from the top of the Mount of Olives upon a city and wept over it, summons you into this splendid service—"be ready and go out to meet him!"

There is furthermore the call for moral leadership. The great question of right and wrong is much more intricate and difficult to-day than it was when Moses saw certain spiritual realities face to face at the top of Sinai. It was clear to him that life and purity, truth and property, home ties and religious obligations were all sacred. His convictions on those subjects were graven on tables of stone as indicative of the permanence of the moral distinctions in those ten commandments. But in our present highly organized life and our far-reaching problems, the determination of the successive steps of individual and corporate action, which will rightly safeguard those fundamental interests is a harder question than any that Moses faced. There is need everywhere for men who can say, and say with such insight, sincerity and power as to command a following, "This is the way, walk in it!" In the industrial struggles of modern times, in the determination of political policies, in meeting the vice and crime, which have become such a frightful menace, in dealing both wisely and tenderly with the defective classes in society, there is sore need of competent far-seeing and trustworthy leadership. It ought to be the aspiration of every graduate to hear this call and to be ready to come out, holding aloft in his own intelligence and character a lamp trimmed, filled and burning!

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It is an intensely personal matter as Christ portrays it in this parable. "Give us of your oil," the foolish said to the wise, "for our lamps are going out." And why should they not generously share with their unfortunate sisters? Because that for which the oil stands is not transferable. Personal character is never suddenly transferable. The father of a reckless, headstrong, dissolute boy would be glad to share his own sobriety, integrity and love of hard work with the young fellow; but he cannot—the son must go and gain those qualities for himself. These priceless commodities cannot be handed over in the hour of emergency as one might pour oil from one lamp into another. The parable rings true. The very nature of the case and the constitution of things as they are unite to say to the foolish, who would suddenly borrow from their friends: "Not so; Moral adequacy to the demands which will be made upon you must be attained by each one for himself."

When you make adequate preparation and are able to meet this call of duty, you are walking in the way of the highest happiness known to men. There is no such satisfaction to be found on earth or in the sky as that which springs from the consciousness of duty well done. It is a wedding feast in itself; it is the marriage of aspiration and realization. I have high warrant for this claim. I turn back again to that Representative Man. I see him among the old olive trees in Gethsemane the night he was betrayed; I see his trembling disciples hesitating yonder in the dark between loyalty and flight; I see him, the purest and kindest one who ever walked the earth, face to face with the necessity of dying like a criminal on the cross! It is a situation which seems to lack all the elements of joy; it seems the very irony of fate. But when he speaks to the Father, I hear him say: "I have finished the work thou gavest me to do and now I come to thee." When he speaks to his disciples he says: "These things I have spoken

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unto you that my joy might remain in you and that your joy might be full." The joy of duty prepared for and well done lifted him beyond the reach of any earthly enemy.

It was my privilege once to talk with Mr. Frederick W. Seward, who was acting Secretary of State in April, 1865, during the illness of his father, William H. Seward. He described the last cabinet meeting which Lincoln attended. It was on the thirteenth of April, the day before "Good Friday." After the sombre experiences through which they had been passing, this was a meeting of good cheer. Lee had surrendered and the terms offered him by General Grant had been approved. Sherman was pressing Johnson's army so close that its surrender seemed only a question of hours and that would end the war. All the members of the cabinet felt that a great load was being rolled away. When the business was over, Lincoln walked to the window, which opened toward the South, as if he saw in a vision the scenes which had cost the nation so much blood and treasure. Then turning to his secretaries he said: "It has been a hard struggle; but we are about through, thank God! thank God!" The next night he fell by the hand of the assassin! And though his last hours were hours of physical agony and in spite of the bullet hole in the noble head, there was upon his face a look of peace and exaltation as he lay in state in the capitol at Washington—capitol still of the whole United States—his casket draped with that flag, in which no star was missing, and now too pure to float above a slave! There was a look of peace and exaltation upon his face, as if within his heart there was some far off echo of the Saviour's word. He too had finished the work which God gave him to do; he had heard the call of duty and had answered it; and he had thus entered into the joy of his Lord.

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ER IST UNSER.[1]

ALEXIS F. LANGE.

"Er war unser." He was ours. These words of Goethe voiced the feelings of his people a century ago. They still express the mind and heart of that people's descendants, although now a far mightier host than in 1805, at home in many more lands, divided by many more interests, active in the world's culture in many more ways. To-day, mindful of the ties that bind us to Schiller, Californians though we are, we also say with Goethe: "He was ours."

There is family pride in this declaration, because Schiller's achievements, the greatest of which was the conduct of his life, entitle him to a secure place beside the deathless few of mankind. There is joy no less than pride, because of the noble pleasure he has given, because, though a hero, no bloodshed tarnished his triumphs, because the kingdom he won—a kingdom of ideals and beauty—even the humblest may and does easily enter. He was ours. We say it with the affection we bear to a personal friend, who understands us and our struggles, whose presence strengthens and ennobles, and whose works and example call, as with strains of martial music, to vigorous action in behalf of the things that alone make life worth living.

[1]An address delivered at the Schiller Memorial Celebration in the Greek Theatre, May 21, 1905.

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Our connection with our kinsfolk across the sea is still close enough for us to be able to share even in the feeling of gratitude towards Schiller for his contribution to the cause of German freedom and national unity. The one invincible foe Napoleon the First encountered was not the Russian winter but the spirit of freedom, the faith in manhood, the moral enthusiasm, the kindling ideals of a worthy national life, which Schiller's works did more than any other human agency to evoke and shape among high and low throughout the length and breadth of Germany. Wilhelm Tell, the one great drama of national liberty, the only great drama of democracy, created a standing army, as it were, for the defense of inalienable rights and for the achievement of unity in freedom. No wonder the Schiller Day of 1859, forty-six years ago, became a festival such as the nation had never celebrated before. Through him Germans felt united; in him they saw the prophet and herald of a new era, when the longing for one country should be fulfilled, a country to be proud of, a country each citizen might have a chance to become worthy of, through character and culture worked out in action, private and public. In less than fifteen years from that date the German empire was a reality—through the genius of Bismarck; but Schiller has had no mean share in making the new era possible. If silent forces, operative for generations, count for anything, if thought begets ideals and these bring forth deeds, if the motives for great action depend on clear vision of great issues—

> Denn nur der grosse Gegenstand vermag
> Den tiefen Grund der Menschheit aufzuregen—

then Schiller, too, must be classed with the empire-builders of modern Germany. Indeed, Germans would give up a part of themselves if they gave up Schiller and what he stood for and lived for; they would court the fate of Wallenstein if they abandoned the practical idealism which Schiller taught, and without which civilization becomes

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merely another name for barbarism; if they did not as a nation continue to declare:—Schiller is ours still, because our faces are still set towards the goal he pointed out and nobly strove to reach.

We Americans of German stock can hardly be called good Americans unless we can also say:—he is ours. None of the Anglo-Saxon fathers of our American civilization loved liberty more ardently than he; none believed more passionately in the eternal rights of every human being, the *"ewigen Rechten, die unzerbrechlich und unveränderlich wie die Sterne selbst am Himmel hangen";* no one in America saw so clearly a hundred years ago that political freedom, instead of being the whole of liberty, gives only a chance to become free, that so-called free institutions become an idle boast, a beautiful body possessed of the devil, unless the individual members of the nation grow steadily in knowledge, in self-control, in practical efficiency, and through energetic coöperative action mold their own characters and shape their common public interests in accordance with reason and justice to all. In all essentials Schiller's thought is in the fullest accord with the most advanced American patriotism of the present day. Emperor William has presented the American people with a statue of Frederick the Great, the noblest example of enlightened despotism. It would be a gracious thing to do, if he would complete his gift by sending over a statue—to be placed alongside of the other—of Frederick's younger contemporary, Friedrich Schiller, the noblest German example of enlightened republicanism. Who will suggest it?

He is ours, ours as Americans, without regard to descent. Whatever our original home, Schiller is to us not only a poet by whose gifts to his fatherland the whole world is the richer, but also the personal embodiment or representative of the best our higher national life owes to Germany, the Germany instructed by Schiller and his great contem-

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poraries. The movement of action represented by the founders of our republic made every citizen a ruler. Energetic action is our most characteristic national trait now. We point with just pride to American men who "do things." But is not our characteristic danger that while we justly and joyfully send one man to the White House because he "does things," we have to send many more to the penitentiary for "doing things"? How to make our sovereign citizen fit to rule; how to make him give his neighbor "a square deal," as Roosevelt says, because he feels bound, as Schiller says, by "his brethren's right, as sacred as his own"; how to replace a patriotism that begins and ends with Fourth of July rocket and racket with an enlightened patriotism of daily action; how to substitute trained intelligence and conscience-governed character for criminal blundering and license,—this has been, is, and will continue to be our greatest national problem. It is the problem of democracy. Towards its solution no other nation has had so much to contribute, no other country has contributed as much as the Germany represented by Schiller. The American movement of action has been supplemented most helpfully by the German movement of thought. "Nations," says Emerson, "were made to help each other as much as families were; and all advancement is by ideas, and not by brute force." If this be true, Germany, next to England, has contributed more, up to the present day, to the success of our experiment in self-government than all the other members of the family of nations put together; and as long as the search after truth is not as distinctly a national trait as energy is, as long as duty is not performed spontaneously, because the performance of it has become second nature; as long as beauty of life and surroundings is not universally the outflowering of perfected character, so long will *Deutschland's Dichter,* Schiller, have something to contribute.

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We, who are heirs by blood to these treasures of German genius and character, would be untrue to ourselves and guilty of disloyalty to this fair country of ours, if we should neglect to take and keep possession of them, if we should fail to use and add to them, should fail to adapt and apply them, should fail to work them into the fabric of our American civilization. The key to them, to mention one point, is the German language, and we are not giving our country, this country, "a square deal," if we allow our children to drop or lose that key, and so compel them to start on the way to American citizenship exactly where the children of those start who have inherited nothing worth having. No, with the masterly thought and masterly action of two countries, of two great civilizations, as a glorious heritage, our sons and daughters, if we do our duty by them, should be the first to learn how "*meisterlich zu leben wie sie denken,*" should lead all others in the national progress to the highlands of citizenship, should be able always to say with the Unterwaldner in that unparalleled scene on the Ruetli: "*Wir sind die Ersten am Platz, wir Unterwaldner.*" And no scene in all literature is a truer and fairer symbol of our national ideal. Whatever the Canton we or our ancestors came from originally, England, Ireland, Germany, France, Italy, Russia, and all the rest,—we stand on the same rock of justice, of law, of liberty. We are all Americans. We have one cause—our country; one responsibility—not its bigness, but its greatness in manhood and womanhood. We face the same dangers and cherish one hope—a hope to be realized in the strength of unity. In the interest of this national unity and all it implies, we of this place and hour make the Ruetli vow our own, as the words and the spirit are Schiller's:—

Wir wollen sein ein einig Volk von Brüdern,
In keiner Not uns trennen und Gefahr.
Wir wollen trauen auf den höchsten Gott
Und uns nicht fürchten vor der Macht der Menschen.

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WOMAN IN SCOTCH LITERATURE.[1]

CHARLES G. PATERSON.

Sometimes in the quaint parlor of a quiet country home, a thousand miles from the sea, you may take from the shelf some beautiful shells; and, placing them to your ear, you may hear the dull roar of old ocean. So you may take the beautifully prepared masterpieces of Scotch literature, and, laying the ear of your soul close to their pages, you may hear, though far from her shores, the varied music of old Scotia's life. Or, from the table in the same little parlor you may take one of those old-fashioned booklets from which drops down a series of folding views, bringing before you Scottish scenes with which you are familiar—streets you used to roam, churches in which you used to worship God according to the dictates of your grandmother's conscience, hills you have climbed, rivers you have swum. Such a service does the series of works comprising Scotch literature perform for the exiled Scot and his native-born children.

What do we hear and see in Scotch literature of God's finest piece of handiwork—woman? What part does woman play in the world of Scotch fiction and poetry? To compress what might be said on such a subject within a few minutes would take the perseverance of a Scotch saint, and I have not even the perseverance of an every-

[1] An address delivered at the Scottish Day Exercises in the Greek Theatre, July 15, 1905.

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day American sinner. But if you will permit me to gang my ain gait, I will endeavor, as the saying is, to make a few remarks.

In the first place, the woman that is introduced to us in Scotch literature is, almost without exception, a Scotch woman. Can you recollect a female character in the Scotch fiction and poetry that you have read who was not a Mary, a Jessie, or a Jeanie, if not by name, yet by nature? Nor is this surprising; for Scotch literature has been produced by Scotch men. And Scotch men have always believed that, themselves possibly excepted, the choicest human product is a Scotch lassie.

But it must be added, in the second place, that the Scotch woman who is brought before us in Scotch literature is, in the great majority of cases, a young Scotch woman. In the poetry of no other nation are the lasses more charming or more exquisitely courted than in that of Scotland; but the old women are as a rule unlovely and uninteresting, and ungallantly treated. This is true especially of the earlier literature of the country, and is partially explained by the widespread popular superstition that old women had a tendency to turn to witches.

The following story from an early Scotch work may be taken as a fair sample of the treatment accorded Scotch women who had passed the blithe and bonnie age. A widow came to her husband's grave to water the seeds of grass that she had planted on it. The parish clerk observed her, and said "The seeds winna want watering, widow, they'll spring finely o' themselves." "That may well be," rejoined the widow, "but ye dinna ken that my gude man, as he lay a-deeing, just got me to make promise that I'd never marry again till the grass had grown aboon his grave. And, as I've had a good offer made me but yestere'en, ye see, I dinna like to break my promise, or to be kept a lone widow, as ye see me." Then the good clerk cried, with a mirthful twinkle, "Water him weel, widow; MacTavish aye was drouthy."

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In reviewing Scotch writers, with this topic in mind, we must select. And we must select the best; for a nation's literature, like a nation's music or art, is to be judged by its best products, not by its medium or its poorest. And in Scottish fiction and poetry there are three names that stand out above all others; three names which, upon a survey of the literature of all countries, are entitled to places in the front ranks: Robert Burns, Walter Scott, and Robert Louis Stevenson. From these to the "Kail-yard School" of Crockett, Barrie, and Maclaren it is a steep descent, and from the previous writers to these is a steep ascent; but of this trio Scotchmen may well be proud. Let us see, as quickly as possible, what they have to say of woman.

And first, of Robert—or Bobbie, Burns. The best things that Burns wrote were his songs, for they are part and parcel of his life. It was said of the naturalist Cuvier, that if he were given a single bone of an extinct animal he could reconstruct the creature. In the same way some have thought that from the single production, "Holy Willie's Prayer," they could know the character of Robert Burns, deceased. Not so. To know that man you must know his songs, those spontaneous outbursts of the deepest passions of his soul. And in his songs you will find his women, his heroines. Nearly all of these were real. Some he loved purely; others he loved not wisely, but too well. We are told that Henley has destroyed once and for all the Mary Campbell fable. But criticism can never take out of Scotch literature those tender, touching tributes to woman, which we have loved to associate with the name of the unlettered peasant girl of Ayrshire: "Will ye go to the Indies, my Mary?" "Highland Mary," and "To Mary in Heaven." Of the poems called forth by Burns' love for Bonnie Jean Armour, afterward his wife, we have not time to speak. Nor can we dwell on the lines written of erring sisters, no less sinned against than sinning. Let me give but one example:

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"Had we never loved sae kindly;
Had we never loved sae blindly;
Never met—or never parted,
We had ne'er been broken-hearted."

Of these four lines Scott says that they are worth more than a thousand romances. Mrs. Jameson, that they are the Alpha and Omega of feeling; the essence of an existence of pain and pleasure distilled into one burning drop. In leaving Burns, it may be said, that all the compliments ever paid woman by man in prose or verse may be summed up in his lines:

"What signifies the life o' man,
An' 'twere not for the lassies o?"

We pass now to Walter Scott, one of the greatest novelists, and chief of the great romancers. What of woman in Scott's writings? These things may be noted of his heroines: They are youthful. Out of his thirty heroines, twenty-six are under twenty years of age, or but little above it. They are nearly all motherless. They are girls who have grown up in the companionship of older men, fathers or uncles. They are self-sufficient. They have to plan their own wardrobe and decide on their own conduct. Most of them have been behind the stirring scenes of political events, and thrown into situations where they had to think quickly and act decisively. They are uninteresting and hard to remember, Lucy Ashton and Jeanie Deans excepted. William Dean Howells says, that without his heroines, Scott would be almost as great a writer as he is. It was a man's world that the great romancer created; and in that imaginary world woman was given the subordinate place which he found her occupying in the world of reality about him. And finally, Scott's women seem to have been introduced for a purpose. This was a cold-blooded thing to do. But it was surely not because Sir Walter was a stranger to the passion that Burns knew so well. A perusal of the story of his first love, which ap-

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peared in The Century magazine a few years ago, will dispel any such idea. The reason seems to lie partly in the fact, that when he took to writing novels he was past the age of forty—dare I say, past the romantic spring season of life, the April of existence? Lovers he regards with the air of one who has been through the mill himself, and experienced, not so much disappointment as disillusionment. Waverly women are a protest against the theory that women cannot be made interesting in fiction, unless, on being possessed by the passion of love in its full intensity, they surrender themselves wholly to its influence, and make light of all other obligations. In Scott's heroines the freshness and tenderness of girlhood bloom alongside of a stern sense of duty, and a strict submission to the dictates of conscience.

Last, but in some respects, not least, Robert Louis Stevenson, the fragrance of whose life is still fresh along these shores. Let it be said at once that Stevenson has no clear-cut, typical heroines; and what successful woman characters he has, like Miss Grant and Catrona, are rather studies of himself, or as one writer puts it, Stevenson in petticoats. As a rule he excludes women from his stories, and when he admits them, it is because the plot will not develop without them—the more's the pity, so the author seems to think. Throughout his score or more of volumes we can hardly get a glimpse of a blue ribbon, or hear the rustle of a skirt. The weakness of Stevenson's work is his heroines—or rather lack of them. This may be the explanation of a remark that I once overheard. Two ladies looked into a book-store window, where a most alluring set of our author was displayed at what was really a most alluring price. At once they turned away, while one exclaimed: "I can't stand Stevenson." For most women his books are certainly not satisfying. With guns and boats he is at home; but when his puppets put up their hair and put on muslin the wires creak audibly.

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It appears strange to some that a man who had the mother that Stevenson had, and in his own nature so much of the essentially feminine, should have created so few women, and given so little interest to those he did create. Various reasons have been given. I will state three of them. A man critic says it was because Stevenson was not able to assume toward the other sex that disinterested curiosity by which knowledge of character is attained. A woman critic has it that Stevenson had a very limited knowledge of the faults and failings, and, above all, "the little ways," that go to make up the average woman. In that rich and magic scrip of his the gods had failed to put one thing, the little golden key that unlocks the feminine heart. I now give his own explanation. While in the Adirondacks, an American lady asked him why women did not play a more important rôle in his stories. He replied that it was because women were wholly lacking in the physical courage of the adventurous sort which appealed to him most strongly, and which he loved to celebrate in fancy.

Taking as types these three greatest of Scotch masters of poetry and fiction, striking the average between them, and throwing on the result sidelights from the inferior writers, we discover that woman in Scottish literature occupies much the same position as she does in Scottish life. The Scot may dearly love his wife, but you know that you could not make him say so. He may think much of woman, but speaks little about her. And this attitude of reserve toward woman is a weakness in both Scotch character and Scotch literature.

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CALIFORNIA HALL.

With the reopening of the University on August 17, California Hall was ready for partial use, although the interior finishing is not yet complete. It can safely be said that no building in the State better represents the most modern and advanced ideas of durable construction. It has been built to be permanent, and it will be permanent as the Parthenon has been permanent, and will be used by generations of students hundreds of years hence. At the same time it has been so constructed that its interior arrangements admit readily of such alterations as may from time to time be found necessary. The rooms are divided by partitions of metal studding, wire lath and fireproof plaster. This can be removed at comparatively slight expense and without interfering with any construction that is structurally vital to the building. The floor space permits of arrangements in units of fifteen by twenty-five feet, each unit provided with a window and separate heating and ventilating flues. The space can be divided into as many units as there are windows. It is not expected that the present subdivisions will soon have to be altered, but the needs of the future are amply provided for should changes become necessary.

The building throughout is of the most perfect construction now known. The exterior is of granite from the Raymond quarries, and while granite is not a perfectly fire-resisting material, the adjoining buildings will stand at such an interval that the exterior will never be exposed to a severe fire test. The granite is lined with brick. The

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interior frame is of steel, covered and reënforced with concrete. The steel, previously cleaned and painted, and in its concrete case, is not exposed to the air and is practically imperishable, but even should it in any way corrode with the lapse of years, the concrete becomes harder with time and no weakness can result.

The roof is of steel frame in concrete, covered on the outside with extra heavy Mission tiles. All the metal work on the exterior of the roof is of copper. The floors are of metal and concrete, and the partitions are made with metal lath and fireproof plaster.

The doors, window-casings and such other wood as is seen in the building is of a specially selected oak. The furniture in the building will be of solid oak, specially constructed, except where it is to be of mahogany. The furniture will be of a simple and pleasing design, intended, as the building itself, to serve and please many generations to come.

All the floors, with the exception of the corridor on the first floor, will be covered with cork carpet, soft to the foot and soundless.

The main entrance of the building to the west admits to a lobby wainscoted with marble and thence to the main corridor. Facing the entrance is the stairway. At the north end of the corridor are large doors opening into the lecture room. This room will contain 500 seats, arranged in tiers. Behind the speaker's platform is an immense doorway to the outside, so that the lecture room may be used even on occasions when the rest of the building is closed. The room is admirably lighted by its windows, and is also provided with electric lights for use at night or when the room is darkened for the use of the stereopticon. Every facility is provided for lectures illustrated by the stereopticon. The lecture room will be regularly used for the large classes in History, English, Botany and others that have found so much difficulty in finding accommodations hitherto.

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On either side of the corridor south of the lecture room are arranged four rooms, fifteen by twenty-five feet in size. Two of these are small class rooms, with movable chairs, accommodating about forty, one is a Seminar room for Economics and the office of Professor A. C. Miller, and the other is the statistical laboratory and office of Professor C. C. Plehn.

South of the main entrances and the stairway is found a Seminar room for Professor Bernard Moses, an office and consultation room for the Faculty of the Department of History, a small class room, the accounting laboratory and office of Professor H. R. Hatfield, and three large lecture rooms, accommodating 100 students.

The walls of all these rooms are tinted a shade of old ivory. The perfect heating and ventilation of the rooms will add greatly to their other attractions for the classes that are fortunate enough to have the use of them.

On the second floor is another long corridor, but lighted by ceiling lights from above. The design of this corridor is historically inspired by the plan of the atrium of an ancient Roman house. A great saving of space is accomplished by the use of this corridor as a public lobby from which business can be transacted with the offices there as in the main office of a bank. An information bureau and private telephone exchange will be located immediately opposite the entrance from the stairway. On the west side of the corridor to the north will be the Recorder's Office with counters opening to the corridor or lobby. Similarly to the south on the west side will be the Secretary's Office. Registration, payment of fees and other formalities that have been tedious to students in the past will be greatly simplified when these new offices have been equipped.

At the south end on this floor is the Faculty Room, a handsome apartment for Faculty meetings and the like. In the southwest corner, with a separate entrance from

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the lobby, but also opening into the Faculty Room, is another handsome but smaller room, to be used for Faculty committee meetings or for conferences. The private office of the President is in the southeast corner, and is also connected with the Faculty Room. These three rooms are so arranged that they can be used together when required, and will be suitable for the reception of distinguished visitors to the University. The furniture of these three rooms will be of mahogany.

In the suite with the President's office will be the office of the President's private secretary, a reception room and a room for the President's stenographer.

At the north end of the corridor will be a large room to be used as a lecture room and headquarters for the Department of Education. In the northeast corner will be the office of the Appointment Secretary, Mrs. Cheney, and on the east side, north of the stairway will be the office of the Advisor, Professor G. C. Edwards, the office of Miss Sprague, the Assistant to the Advisor, and a joint office for Dr. G. F. Reinhardt, the Medical Examiner and Professor of Hygiene, and Professor H. Morse Stephens, Director of University Extension. The administrative offices of the University will thus be compactly and conveniently situated.

On the top floor will be the headquarters of the University Press and of the Editorial Committee, and also the Botanical Museum. The Department of Botany will experience great relief at having its collection, which in case of accident could not at any cost be duplicated, placed where it will be out of all danger from fire.

In the basement will be a storage and mailing room for the University Extension work, and a storage room for the collection of the Department of Palaeontology. There will be also large and comfortable lavatories and toilet rooms. The basement will also contain the heating and ventilating chamber. The outside air will here be drawn

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through filters of cloth to remove dust and warmed by being passed over steam coils, the steam being supplied to the building from the central power plant of the University. A large revolving fan will drive this clean warm air to every part of the building.

There will be no fires in the building, no gas, and the wiring for the electric lights has been done in such a way that an accidental fire from the wires is almost an utter impossibility. If there is a building in the State that is perfectly fireproof, in which a fire cannot start, or could find nothing to make headway on if possibly started, it is California Hall.

This magnificent building has been built at a cost of $250,000 with money appropriated for the purpose by the State Legislature. It is a credit to the State and to the University, and to the men who built it, and will stand as long as the University of California shall ever have need of it.

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WHAT A UNIVERSITY FARM IS FOR.[1]

LIBERTY HYDE BAILEY.

The agricultural college idea is by no means new; it is at least two hundred years old. In this country the agricultural college, as an established fact, originated about fifty years ago. Year after next will be celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the Agricultural College, near Lansing, Michigan. The first agricultural colleges were established as a protest against the older kind of education that did not put men into touch with real affairs. The Land Grant Act of 1862 marks one of the greatest epochs in the history of education; it is the Magna Charta of education. Its purpose was to give instruction in those subjects and affairs which have to do with real life. And what are they? They are largely agriculture and the mechanical arts. As these agricultural colleges were largely a protest against the older education it was perfectly natural that at first they should be separate institutions.

About one-half of the agricultural colleges of the Union are separate from the universities proper. They are doing good work, and I am saying nothing whatever derogatory

[1]From a lecture for the University of California Summer Session, Friday, August 4, 1905, on "Present Problems in Agriculture." That portion of the lecture which dealt with the question of the purposes of a University Farm is here printed as a contribution to a question of pressing public interest.

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to them. There are some reasons still given for having separate agricultural colleges. It is said that other courses will attract the young men from the farm. Now, if the agricultural college can't hold the young men it ought to lose them; the time is past when we shall put blinders on the young men. Again, it is said that the farm boy will be looked down upon; but students will not look down upon him if his work is of equally high grade as that pursued in other courses. Sometimes the agricultural college is wanted in a separate locality to satisfy local pride. A locality wants to have an agricultural college and offers inducements to get it. This does not consider the merits of the case. In some cases, a broom factory might be just as satisfying to the community. The university idea is coming to be a unifying idea in the community, and all university work should be kept together. The time is past when the agricultural college should be torn out of the university and be set off by itself.

The agricultural college is founded on the conception that education must relate itself to life. Important corollaries follow. In the first place, agricultural education should not necessarily be bound by academic methods. The teaching work in a college really divides itself into two parts, (*a*)the true college work, leading to a Bachelor's degree; (*b*) postgraduate work leading to two degrees, the first of these being the Master's degree, which should be given for experimental and investigational work, the work involved in the collection and accumulation of facts, etc., and the Doctor's degree, which should be given for a philosophical consideration of the facts and the collections of data.

Two great enterprises have now come into the college—the experiment station and university extension. They are not university work in the old academic sense. The extension enterprises form the best illustrations of the leadership the university has now acquired in public

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affairs. The university is required to do university extension work and it goes beyond the old academic ideals.

Agricultural education also rests upon a large and quickened idea of the laboratory method. We are introducing laboratory methods into every school in the country; the kindergarten, manual training, the school garden; and science work—all mean the laboratory method. And now we also introduce the affairs of every-day life into the schools. All laboratories are pedagogically valuable in proportion as they are in vital connection with theoretical instruction. No school, whether in California or elsewhere, from the primary school to the university, is a good school unless it has laboratory work. The effort is now being made to introduce into every high school in New York a year's work in biology for the first year.

All this brings up the whole question of the university farm. The college or university farm developed with the Land Grant Act. In its history it has gone through several phases. It was first conceived of largely as a model farm, and of course the model farms became the laughing stock of the farmers of the State; and they will always be. If they are model farms they have little pedagogical use. One farm cannot be a pattern farm for all conditions. There are thousands of model farms. Model farms are good farmers' farms. The State cannot afford to go into the model farm business in connection with university work.

In the second place, the farms came to be used merely to illustrate farm practices. In the old days we had museums in our colleges, and persons could go and exclaim as they saw the wonders. We still need museums, but we also have collections with which to work. It is not enough that students merely see things growing or see different breeds of animals. They must come nearer than merely to look; they must use and handle.

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Again, college farms were sometimes run with the idea of making a profit; but you cannot run a farm with profit with student labor. If the State is to make money out of a farm, then it must not be used for teaching purposes, but must be conceived of as an out and out business enterprise.

In the next place, there was an idea that these farms ought to represent the commonwealth—that a farm should be "typical" of the State. It is a mighty poor State that can be typified in one farm. If the State wants a typical farm let it have it, but do not burden the university with it. Put it in charge of a chamber of commerce, or other advertising organization. Anybody can farm typical land.

Then there was a long period of years when the college farm was used very little or even not at all. Not knowing just what to do with them, many of them have been allowed to drift.

Then there came the passage of the Hatch Act in 1887, which established the experiment stations; and this afforded a means of utilizing the college farm. There are a good many of our institutions which are now carrying farm lands as experiment stations. Of course we should have farms for research. There are two kinds of research work on farms. One kind of research is in farm practice; the other is research in the fundamental physical, chemical, and physiological problems, which must be done on some farm directly under control.

Now we have come to the final and proper stage—the farm must then be a laboratory. Thus primarily it must be a laboratory enterprise, and the pattern and model idea are only incidental and secondary. If your people do not believe in this idea, then you must educate your people. A college farm is not primarily for the purpose of growing model or perfect crops. I should rather have the opportunity to teach one student by means of a farm than to show one hundred persons a field of perfect pumpkins.

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If we study plowing in the class room, we must also study it in the field, even if we destroy a crop. We must determine and test the relation of plowing to moisture, aeration, microbic life, and many other questions. It is more important that a man learn how and why to plow than it is for the college farm to grow a crop of wheat. Even if I tore up the drainage on a farm in order to teach it, I want to be able to do it. The botanist pulls up the plant to study it. In learning how to grow potatoes one should pull them up and study the root system. Not long ago I was asked how deep potatoes should be planted in a certain soil. I asked, "How many of you know whether the tubers form above or below the feeding roots." Four or five guessed, but no one knew. But on that fact depends much of the success in planting potatoes. If your students want to see a model orchard, they have a thousand of them in California. We want such an establishment as will allow us to drive our cattle right into the class room. We are this day building a class room at Cornell which will hold stock, and which has seats for the students on the sides. They will study real live cattle, not pictures and models. The young men study those cows and find out why they are good and bad cows. They examine their conformation, etc. These cows are just as much laboratory material as the plants of the botanist or the chemicals of the chemist. Next week, if we should be studying the question of beef cattle, they are brought into the building and the students study them just the same way your students study the stratification of rocks. Ten acres of land to use when I want it, and as I want it, is worth more pedagogically than a thousand acres to look at.

The value of a university farm from a university man's point of view consists in its usefulness as a means of teaching. If you do not want to call it a farm, call it land. The better it is as a farm, the better it ought also to be as a laboratory; but the laboratory utilization of it

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should always come first. If you are not using farms as a means of training men you are not using them for university purposes. A director of an agricultural college said some years ago when a visitor complained that he didn't consider the college farm to be a model farm, "I would rather have a good man with a flower pot in a window than have a poor man with a thousand acres of land." A university farm justified from the university or pedagogical point of view must be made a true laboratory to collate and articulate with the theoretical instruction, otherwise the future will not justify your possession of it.

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UNIVERSITY RECORD.

ALBERT H. ALLEN.

ACTION OF THE BOARD OF REGENTS.

At the meeting of the Regents on August 8 a protest was presented by a delegation of citizens from Tulare County against the closing of the Agricultural Experiment Station near Tulare. The object of discontinuing the Experiment Station is to make use of the funds available for such purposes for local investigations wherever needed, rather than to maintain one station at the expense of many local problems that cannot be studied except on the ground where they occur. After hearing the arguments of the Tulare delegation, the Regents referred the matter to their Committee on Agriculture for further consideration.

Another petition was presented on behalf of Professor Putzker, asking that the Regents reconsider their action taken at the meeting in May affecting Professor Putzker's salary and title.

To these petitioners the chair stated that the action of the Board of Regents in regard to Professor Putzker at the meeting in May was not intended and did not amount to putting Professor Putzker on a pension, but that it was intended by the Board to reduce the salary of Professor Putzker from $3,000 to $2,000 and to change his title from "Professor" to "Honorary Professor." The chair stated further that if the petitioners, or any of them, had the

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impression that the action of the Board was other than as stated by the chair, and that the action of the Board was anything in the nature of pensioning Professor Putzker, then the impression was wholly without foundation. Thereupon Mr. Deamer, on behalf of one of the petitioners, inquired of the Board whether or not Professor Putzker's hours of teaching would not be limited, as Mr. Deamer had in the course of his remarks stated his understanding to be. Thereupon the Board informed Mr. Deamer and the other petitioners that the number of hours and the extent to which Professor Putzker would be called upon to teach was solely a matter of internal administration and that the Board refused to make any committal in that regard.

The Board in executive session, after a full discussion of the matter, directed the Secretary to inform the gentlemen representing the German-American League of California that, after having given the petition which they had presented full consideration, and after having carefully considered their representations and all the facts of the case, it is the unanimous opinion of the Board that the best interests of the University and the justice of the cause will be subserved by adhering to the action taken by the Board in May, 1905. The Acting Secretary was directed also to inform Professor Putzker that his letter, transmitted through the President of the University, had been received; that the Regents deem themselves sufficiently familiar with the facts in the case to act intelligently in the matter, and that after having given all the facts connected with the case full consideration the Regents are unanimously resolved to adhere to the action taken by the Board in May, 1905.

A CHAIR OF MUSIC ESTABLISHED.

The appointment of Dr. J. F. Wolle of Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, to the newly established chair of music in the University is an announcement that will cause great satis-

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faction to the music-loving friends of the University. In connection with this appointment, the following communication from Mrs. Alonzo Englebert Taylor is of interest:

"BERKELEY, September 1, 1905.

"Dr. J. Fred Wolle, who has been called to the chair of music established at the University of California by an Act of the last Legislature, is a man who has particularly identified himself with those departments of music that are most closely related to university life. As conductor of the Bach festivals of the Moravian chorus or choir at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, his work has for many years stood out prominently in the musical accomplishments of this country. Mr. Wolle is a musician of diversified attainments. He is an organist of rank, an orchestral and choral conductor of the highest ability, and an inspiring and conscientious teacher. It is particularly in connection with his productions of great oratorio and religious musical works that Wolle has become famous. He was born in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, and received a thorough musical education abroad. In 1884 he became the organist and director of the music of the Moravian church in his home community. This community has long been noteworthy for the musical culture of its members, nearly all of whom either play some orchestral instrument or sing. In 1900, under the leadership of Wolle, the Moravian church gave its first Bach festival, and these have been repeated yearly since, different cycles being held during Christmas week, the last week of Lent and the first week of June. Each festival has consisted of two performances per day through three days, different works, those appropriate to the season, being given at each session. From the beginning these Bach cycles attracted the widest attention in musical circles, and they have been considered by musicians and critics to rank with the most notable musical productions of our country during this period. The audiences have come to consist in

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good part of musicians and lovers of music from all over the eastern and central states.

"These great festivals consist in the production of many and various choral and instrumental works of Bach, and some of these have been given for the first time in America. The programs comprise the Passion music according to the different Apostles, Masses, Oratorios, Cantatas, and other miscellaneous compositions. The chorus of one hundred and twenty voices, and the orchestra of seventy pieces, are made up entirely of members of the community. Solo roles are usually sung by professional vocalists from outside. Concerning the excellence of these musical performances but one opinion has been expressed by musicians and competent critics. All agree that the performances have been upon a very high plane, that the ensemble has attained to as near perfection as possible, and that, above all, the spirit of the composer has been admirably attained and maintained, both in artistic conception and classical interpretation. This fidelity to the ideals of the subject has been the feature that has most appealed to the musicians in the audience. The material in the orchestra and chorus at the disposal of Mr. Wolle has been unquestionably good, nevertheless to him belongs the chief credit for the artistic success of these performances. The music of Bach being so difficult, it requires the highest degree of musical training, and this remarkable attainment in this one instance has been the work of one man.

"Music may be taught in a University along four different lines. Firstly, as an art, a chapter in the history of aesthetics. Such instruction has been long given in a number of universities, and while there can be no question of the value of such work to students of history, psychology, and literature, its influence in elevating the general plane of musical appreciation in the student body cannot be great. Secondly, music may be taught as a virtuosity, a profession. Thirdly, it may be taught as a productive art,

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to the end of composition. For many reasons these lines of instruction are not at present feasible in our universities. Lastly, music may be taught by choral instruction. Through this avenue the general student body may be reached and may be trained in the appreciation of good music and to participate therein. It is easily possible, through proper choral instruction of untrained students, to develop a love for music, to establish high aesthetic standards, and to render satisfactorily the best music. Since practically the entire student body either sings in the chorus or listens to the singing, all are brought under the influence of musical education. For such a task of musical instruction Dr. Wolle is peculiarly fitted. By virtue of his indefatigable energy, his boundless enthusiasm and reverence for his work, and his broad musical culture, he has succeeded in bringing choral training and the rendition of choral music to the highest plane that has yet been attained in our country. The value to the State of general musical culture in the graduates of its University is apparent. A State that receives from its University yearly hundreds of citizens trained in the appreciation of good music receives an impetus of culture that cannot fail to be of good influence to society in general.

"Although special reference has been made to the Bach productions of Wolle's chorus, these have by no means comprised the entire scope of their activities. Much other music has been given under his direction and equally well. But the attention of the musical public has been directed more particularly to the festivals because of the rarity of Bach performances, the difficulties of the task, and the splendid results achieved. In addition to choral instruction, Dr. Wolle will deliver lectures on the theory of music and the history of the art."

President Wheeler has also received a letter from Professor A. A. Stanley, head of the Department of Music at the University of Michigan, in which he says: "I am so

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delighted to know that Dr. Wolle has decided to become one of you. You will be increasingly grateful, I think, as you become acquainted with him and his work. He has, it seems to me, in rare measure all of the qualifications for success. I am sure that unique and immensely valuable results will prove the wisdom of your choice."

FACULTY CHANGES.

Professor Max L. Margolis, Associate Professor of Semitic Languages, will leave the University in September to join the Faculty of the Hebrew Union College in Cincinnati, as Professor of Biblical Exegesis.

Mr. H. W. Ballantine has been appointed Lecturer in Law, to take the place of Mr. F. G. Dorety, '00, whose resignation was made during the Summer. Mr. A. M. Kidd, '01, has been appointed Instructor in Law.

Bernard Etcheverry, '02, has been appointed Assistant Professor of Irrigation. Mr. Don E. Smith is a new appointment as Lecturer in University Extension and Assistant in History. Other new appointments are: C. F. Gilcrest, '03, Assistant in Electrical Engineering, to succeed Arthur S. Wheeler; R. Pinger, Assistant in German, to succeed W. H. Matlock; O. C. Merrill, of Bates College and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Instructor in Civil Engineering; Dr. Torson Peterssen, Instructor in Latin, to succeed Dr. J. W. Basore; Dr. Arthur W. Ryder, Instructor in Sanscrit and German; John Allan Child, Instructor in Italian; Calvin O. Esterly, Assistant in Zoology.

John Taggart Clark has been appointed Assistant Professor of Romanic Languages, and Dr. William Popper will succeed Professor Margolis. Dr. Popper took his degree at Columbia University in 1899, spending the next three years in travel and study at Strassburg, Paris, Berlin, and in the Orient. During the past two years he has been connected with Columbia University and with the Funk & Wagnall's Publishing Company as Associate Revising Editor of the Jewish Encyclopedia.

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Mr. Robert Dupouey, whose resignation as Instructor in French was noted in the last number of the CHRONICLE, has reconsidered his intention of leaving California and will remain in the University.

As Professor Elmer E. Brown has not recovered from the severe illness from which he suffered during the Summer, he has been granted a leave of absence of half a year. In order that the work of the Department of Education may not be interfered with by the absence of Professor Brown, Professor Ernest C. Moore has relinquished the leave of absence which had been granted him, and will continue his work in the University.

Professor William E. Ritter has been granted a leave of absence for one year to be devoted to research and direction of the work at the Marine Biological Laboratory at San Diego.

Miss Adelaide M. Hobe and Miss Fredrica Chase have been appointed Carnegie Assistants at the Lick Observatory, where they will be engaged with the measurement and reduction of the Crossley reflector photographs of Eros.

The following promotions and appointments have been made in the staff of the medical department:

Dr. A. B. Spaulding, promoted from Instructor in Obstetrics to Assistant Professor of Obstetrics; Dr. J. C. Spencer, promoted from Assistant to Assistant Professor of Genito-Urinary Surgery; Dr. Howard Morrow, promoted from Assistant to Instructor in Diseases of the Skin; Dr. Raymond Russ, appointed Instructor in Surgery; Dr. J. Wilson Shiels, appointed Assistant in Medicine; Dr. Rawlins Cadwalader, appointed Assistant in Obstetrics; Dr. A. J. Lartigau, appointed Assistant in Gynecology and Pediatrics; Dr. H. P. Roberts, Dr. Camillus Bush, and Dr. Jacob Schwartz, appointed Assistants in Surgery; Dr. Rachel Ash, Dr. Milton B. Lennon, and Dr. George Blumer, appointed Assistants in Medicine; Dr. Lionel L. Schmidt, Dr. Harry E. Alderson, and Dr. Florence McCoy Hill, Assistants in Diseases of the Skin.

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MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ANTHROPOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

The American Anthropological Association held its annual sessions for 1905 in San Francisco and Berkeley. The meeting for the first day, August 29, was held at the Museum of the Department of Anthropology, Affiliated Colleges, San Francisco. The second session was held in the rooms of the California Academy of Sciences. On Thursday, August 31, the sessions of the Association were held in South Hall, University of California. The programme of the meetings contained about forty papers, many illustrated by lantern slides or by phonographic records.

TWO FOLK-LORE SOCIETIES ORGANIZED.

At a meeting held at the Faculty Club on Friday, August 18, the Berkeley Folk-Lore Club was organized, with Professor Alexis F. Lange, President; Mr. Charles Keeler, Vice-President, and Dr. A. L. Kroeber, Secretary. The first action taken by the new society was to provide for the organization of a California branch of the American Folk-Lore Society. The initial meeting of this society was held Monday evening, August 28, in the Philosophy Building, where the organization was perfected by the adoption of by-laws and the election of officers. Professor F. W. Putnam was elected President. The other officers elected are: First Vice-President, Mr. Charles Keeler; second Vice-President, Professor John Fryer; Treasurer, Dr. W. F. Badé; Secretary, Dr. A. L. Kroeber; Counsellors, Mr. C. F. Lummis of Los Angeles, Professor W. C. Mitchell, and Mrs. T. B. Bishop of San Francisco. Three other Counsellors are to be elected at a later meeting of the Society.

At this meeting Dr. C. Hart Merriam, chief of the United States Biological Survey, spoke on "Aboriginal Folk-Lore from California," and Professor F. W. Putnam, of the Department of Anthropology, and Dr. R. B. Dixon, President of the Cambridge Branch of the American Folk-

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Lore Society, spoke on the aims and possibilities of the new California society.

A RESEARCH LABORATORY IN PHYSIOLOGY.

At the meeting of the Regents on August 8, the President announced that Dr. Morris Herzstein has purchased land at Pacific Grove and will erect upon it a building for a research laboratory in Physiology. The equipment for this laboratory has also been provided for. This generous gift will greatly advance the work of the Department of Physiology.

MUSIC IN THE GREEK THEATRE.

On Sunday afternoon, July 30, the programme of the half-hour of music was rendered by Mr. John Carrington, late baritone soloist of Trinity Chapel, New York, and sometime member of Magdalen College Choir, Oxford, England, and Mr. Uda Waldrop, pianist, with Mr. Wallace A. Sabin, organist of St. Luke's Church, San Francisco, as accompanist.

On Sunday, August 6, Mr. Carrington again sang, with Mr. Sabin as accompanist, and Mr. Hother Wismer rendered several violin selections, accompanied by Mr. Fred Maurer.

On Sunday, August 13, the programme was given by Miss Myra Palache, pianist.

On Sunday, August 20, the programme was rendered by the Grace Church choir of San Francisco, under the direction of Mr. William H. Holt, organist and choirmaster, with baritone and tenor solos by Mr. S. Homer Henley and Mr. Charles Goetting.

On Sunday, August 27, Professor Derrick Lehmer and Mr. Herbert Hidden sang, accompanied by Miss Emma Webb and Mr. Paul Thelen.

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RECENT UNIVERSITY PUBLICATIONS.

During the Summer a number of publications have appeared in the various scientific series maintained by departments of the University. The Department of Anthropology has published as Volume III of its series in American Archaeology and Ethnology a work of 344 pages by Dr. Pliny Earle Goddard, entitled The Morphology of the Hupa Language. The Department of Botany has published Regeneration among Kelps, by Professor William Albert Setchell, and A New Genus of Ascomycetous Fungi, by Dr. Nathaniel Lyon Gardner. In the Classical Philology series has appeared The Whence and Whither of the Modern Science of Language, by President Benj. Ide Wheeler. The Department of Geology has published in its Bulletin five pamphlets. New or Imperfectly Known Rodents and Ungulates from the John Day Series, by William J. Sinclair; New Mammalia from the Quaternary Caves of California, by William J. Sinclair; Preptoceras, a New Ungulate from the Samwel Cave, California, by Eustace L. Furlong; A New Sabre-tooth from California, by John C. Merriam, and The Structure and Genesis of the Comstock Lode, by John A. Reid. The Department of Zoology has completed the first volume of its series with a paper by Professor Charles A. Kofoid, entitled Some New Tintinnidae from the Plankton of the San Diego Region. In the second volume of this series will soon appear an extensive study by C. O. Esterly under the title The Pelagic Copepoda of the San Diego Region. Other numbers in this series and in other series are in press.

Professor E. W. Hilgard has given the sum of $125 to be awarded as a scholarship to be known as the Hilgard Memorial Graduate Scholarship.

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University Chronicle

VOL. VIII DECEMBER, 1905 No. 2

THE RELATION OF THE PACIFIC COAST TO EDUCATION IN THE ORIENT.[1]

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

The ends of the earth at last have met. They have met and joined on the American continent midway between the Asiatic East and the European West. A place and shelter for the meeting has been prepared in the form of a nation blended out of all the bloods of mankind and builded neither on race nor the cults of kinship, but on the rights of man. This much has human society done, and geography has enforced the work by setting the abode of this nation between the two world-seas whose free highways make their side of the globe the easier way from the old Occident to the old Orient. Four hundred years after the Cabots touched the Atlantic hem of North America and one hundred years after Lewis and Clark brought the Cabots' work to fulfillment in carrying the Anglo-Saxon name through to the Pacific hem, in the year of our Lord, 1905, delegates of the greatest European empire followed the track of the sun a hundred degrees of longitude westward and delegates of the most vigorous Eastern power

[1] Address delivered before the Educational Congress at the Portland Exposition Tuesday, August 29, 1905. It was an interesting coincidence that after the close of the address and during the discussion which followed it, the first tidings of the conclusion of peace between Russia and Japan reached Portland and was announced to the Congress.

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faced the sun and journeyed one hundred and thirty degrees eastward until they met in Portsmouth, and if they had reversed the division of distance it would have been in Portland;—in either case upon a continent prepared for them by collusion between the separate developments of government and of geography, upon a continent which was no other than that unexpected dyke of land which only four centuries ago suddenly arose out of the ocean's mists, and planted itself upon the map to block Columbus' way, when he sought the Orient by reversing the direction of the old-time caravan routes.

The arteries of empire and commerce in the twentieth century world pulse through the two great oceans. The great powers are those that maintain great navies. The ancient world looked inward with its back to the oceans and dealt with the land and inland seas. Power was quoted in terms of armies, and what were called fleets were merely armies fighting from scows in land-locked waters.

The ancient world in its highest organization consisted of two mutually exclusive parts, on the one hand Europe with Mohammedan Asia and Africa, on the other India and China. Between the two there was exchange of goods at arm's length, but no exchange of ideas or institutions. The Occident and the Orient dwelt apart and developed as antitheses. They never have understood each other; the fundamental concepts of the life-thought differ *toto coelo.*

The old Occident, Europe and Mohammedan Asia and Africa, was established in a blend of two minor antitheses, Europe and the Nearer East. The Mediterranean was the mixing pot, Constantinople was the label and seal. The Nearer East had the sources of its life in the civilizations of the two great river-valleys of the Nile and the Euphrates. Europe assorted its races by means of its rivers, preeminently the Volga, the Dnieper, the Vistula, the Elbe, the Danube, the Rhine, the Seine, the Rhone, and the Po;

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and by its two southern peninsulas, Greece and Italy, inserted the wick into the oil of the greater world civilization. Greece discovered the creative freedom of the human mind, and established thereon the only human freedom that was ever worth the while; Palestine yielded faith in the goodness and power of the Single God; Rome provided for this mind and spirit the body of law and government, and out of the trinity arose the Mediterranean civilization we call European, of which our history, politics, art, thought, ethics, religion, in fact we all of us in all our spiritual being and environment are thus far an established part.

Over against this Mediterranean Occident has stood through all the ages unperturbed and impenetrable the incomprehensible Orient of India and China. The West could only understand their spices; not their salt. And for the spices and other spicy wares the dull camels tramped the Kashgar and the Kabul routes through the dark and unrecorded centuries, the only bond between the two great world-halves which were and are and mayhap always shall be. Nineveh and Trebizond, Babylon, Tyre and Sidon were built of the drippings of this inter-world-half trade, then when it diverged through the Red Sea Alexandria was enriched by it, and later when the Saracens intervened to disturb the old routes, Venice and Genoa became its monuments, and last of all with the discovery of the route around the Cape of Good Hope *nations* were enriched, first Portugal, then Holland, then England. It was not a new continent that Columbus set out to discover, but the old spices and gold of the old Orient. The finding of America instead was his undoing.

The yearning of the West has always been toward the East. It has sought its wares and spices, but behind all that has lain the half-formulated, half-confessed instinct to lay hand on the slumbering power that lurks behind the mystery of the East stored in the long-schooled industrial

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patience of the Chinaman and the cosmic philosophy of the Hindoo. The emergence of the American continents as a mighty barrier across the path of the western route became a discouragement to the thought of using that route. The search for a passage to the north of North America persistently failed. The southern tip of South America pushed itself down more than twenty degrees of latitude farther than the Cape of Good Hope. Even the narrow isthmus of Panama proved a barrier rather than a highway. It took four centuries for men fully to dominate the barrier by occupying it with homes and cutting it through with steel highways. It will be yet a decade or more before the Panama canal is cut through.

Meantime the outreach toward the Orient has reverted to the eastern routes. First came the route round the Cape of Good Hope which created the colonial system of Holland and the empire of England. Then came the shortcut by the Suez Canal through the Red Sea. Then came the project of a railway joining southeastern Europe by way of Asia Minor and Persia to the head of the Persian Gulf. Then came the development of Russia's trans-Caspian route by steamers across the Caspian and railway on through Turkestan by Samarkand. Only the check of English power has prevented northern Persia and northern Afghanistan from melting into the jurisdiction of Russia and admitting the passage of a railway by the old route, Teheran to Herat to Kabul to India. So the ways revert to the old-time track of the caravans. And finally was built the trans-Siberian line on Russia's own soil almost to the shores of the Pacific. Even if northern Manchuria could be called Russian soil, it could not yet be granted that a railway issuing at Vladivostok had reached the Pacific, for that port was closed a third of the year by ice. The day came however when the watchful eye of England was averted or was closed in sleep. Russia displaced England in its place as China's good friend and

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forced it over into an alliance with Japan. Li Hung Chang was bought with Russian gold. Russia carried her railway through to Port Arthur, and at last had found the open sea, and enrolled her destiny with the nations which found their empire in battle ships that ply the outer oceans. For centuries she had struggled to reach an ocean, but the nations plotted to keep her an inland power. The Baltic is almost an inland sea; its harbors are ice-bound in the winter, and Scandinavians and Germans control its exits. The Great Powers by a conspiracy of inaction leave the stranded hulk of Turkey to block the exit of the Black Sea. When Russia has looked for a way out by the Persian Gulf, England has always been ready to set a check, and now the interests of Germany which in recent years has been establishing itself as guardian of senile Turkey, will be even more potent to prevent. The commercial and perhaps the political interests of Germany lead her along the southwestern face of the Russian glacier. Her wares move southeast. In this direction too is the line of least resistance for the development of her political power. The railway to the head of the Persian Gulf will be hers. It is therefore just at present her policy to be the good friend and candid adviser of Russia, and gather in all the wreckage that issues from Russian disaster.

When at last in 1898 Russia seemed to have found its clear way to the open sea it appeared that the history of the world had advanced into a new stadium. A new power had entered the lists for the empire of the outer ocean. Northern and Central China were to be brought into relations and assimilated to the West through the mediation of half-occidental, half-oriental Russia, and oriental Japan of occidental veneer was to be robbed of its task, and stand doomed to finally inevitable absorption into the mass of Russia. Then it was that two events presented the opportunity for a total shifting of the horoscope.

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These two events were the Boxer uprising and the Russo-Japanese war.

The former gave the opportunity for the issuance of John Hay's circular note stating the policy of the "open door." The circular note was a device forced upon our State Department by the classical incompetency of the United States Senate under its present constitution and its unwritten rules of courtesy. It is now a body incapable of largeness of view or promptitude of action. John Hay seized the opportunity and secured the assent of the powers to a policy opposed to partition of China, and established this policy—especially since the reaffirmation obtained by a second note, in a security as firm as any body of international treaties could assure. Throughout the Boxer troubles John Hay deftly avoided all recognition of the uprising as involving a state of war, and thus prevented Russia from obtaining a hold upon Manchuria that could arise from conditions of war. Herein lay his most certain and distinguished diplomatic service. This was an achievement of first importance, shapen in terms of the whole world-history. Russia had at the beginning assured our government that it proposed no permanent occupation of Manchuria and was present there only as the owner of a railway anxious only to secure peaceful and stable conditions for the operation of its property. John Hay took regular occasion to remind the representative of the Russian Government at Washington of this assurance, and to impress upon him the fact that our government had noted the assurance and accepted it in literal form.

John Hay appeared upon the scene in this critical juncture because our controversy with Spain had just at that time laid responsibilities upon our nation and established its interests in Asiatic waters. The juncture was rendered for us peculiarly critical by the fact that just at that time England was preoccupied in the Boer War and

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had suffered notable decline of international prestige through the prolongation of that conflict. Whether by agreement or otherwise the United States stepped into the administration of what had hitherto been the English policy in the Chinese Orient. It was the policy of non-partition, of leaving China as a whole to work out its own adjustment to world-conditions, to administer its own awakening.

Close upon this event followed the Russo-Japanese war, the issue of which has certainly been to thrust back Russia from its debouchment upon the open ocean, and transform Japan from an island power to a power encircling the Sea of Japan.

If this issue shall be established as a permanent fact of history, the verdict means that this latter-day reversion to the caravan routes and the eastward track as the means of accomplishing the assimilation of the East to the West has met with rebuff, and again gone down in failure. The failure will have been due in chief measure to two things; first, the appearance of America as a power in the Pacific; second, the rise of Japan into the position of a modern nation able to assert itself. But it was from America Japan received its impulse toward the adoption of the modern equipment of life. The occidentalism which has affected it has come around the globe westward by the ocean route, not by the old eastward route on land.

The great problem with which world-history will have to deal in the next centuries concerns the assimilation of Eastern Asia to the other world-half. All through the long history of mankind India and China have gone their own way. They have received little or nothing from the thought and experience of the rest of the world, and given little to it. Their views of the universe and of the purpose and meaning of life are their own, developed out of their own experience and reflection without conference with the West. The man of the West and the man of

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the East cannot therefore understand each other. There are no common factors in their thought. In superficial things they may seem to establish a temporary understanding, but they are apart on the fundamentals. They translate each other's thoughts by words that seem to be equivalents, but they are not; the concepts differ. When the Yankee thinks he has caught the secret of the Chinaman, then is he of all men most miserable; his trouble has really just begun, for to his ignorance is added the deceitful assurance of knowledge. To understand the guileless prattle of one of these sons of the Celestial Kingdom is one thing; it would be quite another to enter the mysterious caverns of a Chinese head, dwell in the quirks and convolutions of his brain, and look out through his eyes upon the world. Even if you then thought you knew the Chinaman, you surely would not recognize the world as being anything you had seen before.

The human society to which all we occidentals belong is a long-time work of history, and highly complicated, both as to materials and the forms of their blending and use. Every people and tribe, every religion and culture from Assyria to Ireland has contributed its part. We measure boards by Assyrian inches and jokes by the standards of Irish humor. All the elements of this vast and complicated social mass have become with time and intercourse and interchange more or less assimilated to each other. An Armenian and a Swede are infinitely nearer to each other than either is to a Hindoo or a Chinaman. India and China have not yet come into the world's kneading-trough. The time of their bringing in cannot, however, be longer delayed. The globe has shrunken to one-half in twenty years, and the nooks and lurking places are disappearing, and the barriers of mountain, desert, ocean.

The assimilation of this other world-half, so far as it concerns fundamental things,—the view-points of the inner

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religion and folk-philosophy, will be slow, exceeding slow. The solid earth may not have the staying power and patience to wait therefore. But in the superficial things of materials, their making, use, and interchange, the assimilation will come fast, possibly too fast for the safety of the world. If the enormous force of the trained industrial patience of China shall be on a sudden armed with modern steel weapons, *i.e.*, machinery, engines, dynamos, rails, it means, of course, for the world an industrial cataclysm, an economic revolution and upturning from the depths. The Chinese patience in toil is not a personal acquisition of individuals; it is trained into the bone of the race, and the quality and quantity of it combine to give China a latent working force, an industrial power far exceeding that of all the nations added together. The native steadiness and conservatism of the Chinese must however give us fair assurance that the industrial transformation will come gradually enough for economic conditions at large to adapt themselves thereto.

However this all may be, the main fact which concerns us in connection with the analysis we have been attempting is this: the assimilation of the Chinese Orient to the modern world is through the Pacific Ocean by the westward path of the sun. The Pacific was of old a lonesome place where the day could change its clothes of number and name without being observed. The old world looked inward; China and India toward their river valleys, the occidental half toward the Mediterranean. The modern world is the old world turned inside out with outlook toward Oceanos that flows around the continents. When America was first occupied by colonists the inward-looking people of the old world, like the dwellers in an old Roman house built around a court with few outside windows, regarded the new continent as an outbuilding far back in the back yard. The colonists themselves thought of the Atlantic as something isolating them from the Old World,

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and they claimed it as a wall of separation to free them from entanglement in the worn-out policies and systems and traditions of Europe, and to give them the thing they called "liberty." But now that the world has been turned inside out, the Atlantic proves to be only an estuary of the great ocean, and America, instead of being an outlying continent hidden away under the sunset, assumes its place in the center of the world, midway between the old occident and the goal of its incessant, age-long yearning, the unfathomed East.

Slowly at first but steadily throughout, and with cresting waves of energy in the last half century, the tide of advancing occidentalism has occupied the new continent and finally covered with deep flood its western coast. The Pacific Coast has thus become within fifty years the outer selvage of occidentalism. Its people, too, represent by their aggressive individualism, their riskfulness, and their power of creative initiative the most advanced type of the occidental spirit. They are what the old Greeks were in the days when Greece was the inner hem of the Occident.

A century ago when the world still looked inward and America was a distant annex and the Pacific a desert of waters, the eastern shore of our continent formed its front and façade. Now with the world turned inside out, with the Pacific established as the world's forum with the world's contrasted halves arrayed on the opposing shores, the front of the continent has shifted to the West. For its mission of the future the United States looks westward. A recent history of the United States cast in terms of geography opens with the statement: "The most important geographical fact in the past history of the United States has been their location on the Atlantic opposite Europe; and the most important geographical fact in lending a distinctive character to their future history will probably be their location on the Pacific opposite Asia."

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(Semple.) I think this must be the opinion of all who have considered the course of human history in the large; I know it is the decided conviction of the writer and maker of history who lives in the White House at Washington, a conviction which has been borne in upon him with a special force by the events of the last three months.

Thus much by way of introduction, but the whole doctrine of my discussion inheres in my introduction. I might therefore do well to stop at this point, and I am sure you would be quite satisfied that I should, but there are yet sundry things which I would fain say, if only by way of annotation to my introduction.

The essential spirit of the modern ultra-occidentalism is betrayed in its ideals of education, which it derives from the Greeks, the ultra-occidentals of antiquity. The nucleoidal idea therein concerns a view of the universe wherein thought is the enlivening force, and the free spirit of thinking, planning, willing man the real creative source. Science is the order that human mind injects into the haphazard and waste of savagery and nature after abstracting from them their thoughtless laws by observation. The purpose of education is the ennobling and fulfillment of manhood to its liberation from circumstance, impulse, prejudice, superstition, the rule-of-thumb, and all things that mean slavery to the instant vision and thoughtless force. The aim of education is to develop to the full all the native capacities of the individual, so that he may live abundantly and be a freeman, a freeman in the face of unthinking nature by dominating it, in the face of his human environment by judging it correctly and dealing with it justly, in the face of his own self by controlling it. The theory of the whole Chinese system of education, whether in manners, crafts, or letters, involves the effort to fit and constrain the individual into conformity with his environment, so that he may perform the tasks that are awaiting him and live the life his ancestors have prepared

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for him with the maximum of adjustment and the minimum of friction. For discovery, invention, innovation, creation there is no provision, except prevention. It approches what is viciously called in this country "practical education"—the education that assumes to give skill and the knowledge of recipes without that control of the sources and bearings of the matter which enables mind to do its creative work of adapting means to new ends, meeting new emergencies, and making a man a freeman, the master of his job and not its slave. While the Chinese education seeks to shape the individual to his environment, the American training in its best form seeks to give the individual power within himself, *i.e.*, to make *him* powerful in himself to shape and create his environment. To the American life is real; to the Chinaman it is a drama set upon a stage. The business of the individual is to take the part and play the role assigned to him in the drama. To live well in the Chinese sense is to live in "good form," to "keep face." This is the antithesis both in view of life and theory of education which we are called upon to bridge.

Within the next decades the educational institutions of the Pacific Coast in first line of those of America will surely be called upon, to an extent out of all proportion to anything in the past, to render service in opening western education to the people of the Orient. As it always has been in the history of human education, betterments and reforms will proceed from the top downward. The universities will lay the foundations. It will be the Chinamen trained in the best our universities can give who will begin the reorganization of their home education and train the teachers for the common schools. A recent Chinese graduate of the University of California has already been put at the head of the educational system of a Chinese province, and is just now busied with the difficult task of founding embryonic normal schools for the training of

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the first teachers who are to infuse Western learning into the heads and lives of Chinese boys. Within the three last years, aside from the Chinese coming to the university on their own responsibility, a considerable number have been sent by one or another of the provincial governments to be trained for the government service, some in law, some in political science, some in education, some in engineering, some in commerce, and some in finance. There are no better students to-day in the university. If we can teach them initiative and sense of control and the modern sciences whose development rests upon these qualities of mind, yet we can learn from them, as our civilization can learn from its Eastern antipode, a patient recognition of the power of time and of the force residing in the inertia of great social masses and the value of persistent adherence to the obligations of duty and loyal service to the inherited order of the family and society. A man is of small use to his day and generation, be he Chinaman or American, who absolves himself, as hermit, tramp, and bandit from all relation or obligation to the life-line of descent and posterity as established in the laws and responsibilities of the fireside, the homestead, and the home community.

An entirely different problem confronts us regarding the Filipino people who have fallen under our oversight in the order of events. They came to our hands because we had a Pacific Coast. Dewey entered Manila Bay because a Spanish fleet lying there was a menace to the harbors of our coast. The rest followed inevitably. What we have done as a nation for these people is worthy of the best interpretation of our democracy. We have done what no nation has done for a colony of alien race. We have sought to give them through education the power of self-determination. They differ from all other oriental peoples in that they have enjoyed the advantage of centuries under Christian influence. These centuries have not

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been in vain in bringing them nearer toward an assimilation into Western civilization. While lacking the Chinese stability, they are bright and versatile, and the best of their youth will respond readily to the opportunities of our higher education and develop into leaders of their people. What is needed by their people is leaders in commerce, law, medicine, engineering, and agriculture,—not politicians. Already in considerable numbers Filipino boys are coming to our universities and schools, and the immediate future will make large demands upon the institutions of the Coast for their care.

Our nation was shapen for the work of evangelization. It has gathered into it all the bloods and faiths of the occidental world, and has moulded them together into a people out of which is emerging the concept *man*. It has based its institutions upon democracy, the most daring optimism devised by man, a system of governing whose chief *raison d'être* lies in its power to educate and uplift men by conferring responsibility, and saying to them, "The law and the kingdom, lo, they are within you." The faith of our fathers is our faith to-day; our evangelizing zeal is the zeal of democracy,—the ultimate zeal of the West,—to make men self-determining and self-governing. Is democracy a failure? Our answer is the answer of John Paul Jones to the question of the Serapis, "Have you surrendered?":—"We have not yet begun to fight."

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THE ABUNDANT LIFE.[1]

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

We are living in days of abundance. The life of the average man lays daily tribute upon the resources of the world. The conditions of the old-time Salisbury hill-farm, which fed its owners on its spareribs and corn-meal, and sweetened their taste with the crystallized sap of its maples, and which reckoned a man with a savings-bank account and a hundred stonewalled and unmortgaged acres "forehanded" if not positively rich, have ceased to be the typical conditions of the American present-day prosperity. The forehanded farmer of twenty cows who dwelt in the square white house with green blinds, an elm tree in the door yard, ten barrels of apples and twenty bushels of potatoes in the cellar, and six cords of split birchwood in the shed, knew no other home or abiding-place, had no club house except the winter evenings in the country store or the space about the long box stove between forenoon and afternoon meeting on Sunday, and no outing or recreation except town meeting or the annual muster, or an occasional picnic at Hampton beach.

The economic conditions of the last ten years have suddenly produced a portentously numerous class of American beings,—so numerous as to make them the typical well-to-do,—whose whole strength and wit are completely absorbed

[1] Address delivered at Dartmouth College, June 27, 1905.

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in devising the means of spending any reasonable proportion of their income. Their money has torn them away from the ordinary standards of home and civic life, created a new set of conditions for them, made them its servants. They change their abiding-place with the seasons, have no home, and have forgotten where they vote. Very common it is that the family has become nomadic only on the female side, father and son continuing the struggle in Wall street, because, after the manner of the great American game, there is no good place to stop. They have the wolf securely by the ears, but they have neither garnered him in, nor dare they let him go. In this case, the abundance of this world's goods has availed to break up not only the home but the family.

Another situation is that where the father of the family is in attendance upon the nomadic exercises of his household. This generally indicates that his business has been absorbed by a trust. He has lost his old place in the world's work, and has not found a new one. A faint relic only of his old business energy survives in his exacting discussion of the relative merits of hotels and his earnest efforts to secure a new and more dauntless chauffeur; and all that remains of his old business itself, shop, office, and mill, is concentrated in a pale clerk wielding the scissors in a subterranean safe-deposit. There is nothing left for him to do. A valet packs his trunk, a trust company collects his rents, and a masseur takes his exercise. And the last state is worse than the first.

The sudden dislodgment of life-conditions produced by the rapid access of wealth, in the case of such as allow their lives to be mastered by material wealth, commonly results in a pitiful maladjustment of machinery to work demanded. A man buys more villas than he can live in, more clothes than he can wear, and more yachts than he can sail; and then he fills his life with false movements in a nervous attempt to keep the machinery going. He buys a crush

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hat and attends the Grand Opera, when he would rather hear an anvil chorus, and orders French entrees when his old-home instinct would have rather suggested to him a candid consideration of such viands as baked beans and brown bread, hominy and molasses.

The wealth of our day has been created,—not found, but really created, by bringing things together that belong together in use, by transporting things from where they are not wanted to where they are wanted, and where they can be combined with other things to serve the purposes of human existence. Nature has scattered things helter-skelter without reference to the complicated needs of human society, and it is the art of man, pre-eminently the art of commerce that assembles, distributes and classifies them to the satisfaction of the affinities of use in human civilization. Pepper was not wealth in its native Indies, but those who joined it with the insipid vegetables of Northern Europe created the wealth of ancient commerce and set in motion the world commerce that has been drawing the two great halves of the world together. The wealth of Pittsburgh in this latest day has been created by bringing together there iron and coke to make steel, the wonderful substance that can fetter, control, and guide the new-found powers of electricity and steam. The world's wealth is begotten of moving things about intelligently. The railway, the steamship, the post-office, the telegraph and the telephone, as the agents of intercourse, are the chief instruments of modern wealth-building, as the camel and galley were of old.

Every epoch develops its own diseases in the form of parodies on its distinctive impulses. An age of liberation begets license and disorder, an age of religious intensity yields superstition and intolerance, an age of artistic creation deals in a by-product of æsthetic degeneracy, and in this the world's greatest epoch of wealth-building by intercourse, transportation, movement, the great character-

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istic disease endemic in all ultra-modern society is pseudo-motion. Those who cannot move intelligently, hustle; those whose nerves have been shattered in the rush of the day, if they cannot work, must needs move hurriedly. They fret the ocean with the nervous keels of steam yachts, though they go nowhither; they raise the dust of the roads and imperil the lives of sober folk with their automobiles, but they have no real errand. The rigid firmness, and awful tensity lined upon their faces speak of a goal and a purpose, but are really the index of delusion. These people are victims of disease; they are sick with *Kinetitis,* and their vision of purposeful movement toward a goal has nothing in it more real than the snakes of an alcoholic dream.

One of the saddest features of these lives pursued by wealth consists in their isolation from humanity. The machinery and equipment of living establishes the barrier. People who maintain steam yachts and dine Frenchfully at eight, and flit between Lenox and Newport and Palm Beach and Homburg, are naturally and automatically driven into the society of the like-conditioned, and bound there. Their sons attend the same expensive academies, their daughters are polished off at the same élite schools; their sons and daughters meet together at the assemblies of the 400, as well as at the summer resorts and winter resorts and spring resorts, and they intermarry and inter-divorce; and the caste of the great rich emerges. Sound judgment and clear perspective in the motives and movements of human life are seldom found among these people of the caste, who drag the golden ball and chain. If you want to know what is stirring in the hearts of the American people, you cannòt find it out in Wall street. A man who comes fresh from touch with the warm popular life and current opinion of the great breezy Central West and enters Wall street to discuss a matter of national importance is bound to feel with Pip when he entered the cob-

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webbed house of Miss Havisham. The men immured there are wont to underestimate the intelligence and range of information of the American people. They recognize that the people have learned they are paying twenty to thirty per cent. too much for life insurance, only when the diminished returns for new insurance come in, and they learn reluctantly that Theodore Roosevelt has for his integrity of purpose the confidence of the farms and firesides of the nation only when the votes come in. The graves at the head of the street bring no competent reminder of the safe-deposit where moth and rust do not corrupt, and the upward yearning tower points no one to the place where treasure may be safely lodged. Wealth can be verily a wall to bar a man from men, and it is written that it may become a camel's hump to isolate a man from heaven.

Enough has been said, though only by way of casual, if not too flippant, illustration to indicate the certainty that abundance of goods cannot insure either to a people or to an individual that quality of existence which we are justified in associating with the notion of richness, fulness, abundance of life. A man lives abundantly according as he opens his life to the opportunities of the world he lives in,—opens it both to receive and to give, both to be and to do; according as he make his personality, being what it is, count for the most possible, time, place and environment being what they are.

This may be a pretty small world as worlds go, but it is a considerably variegated one. It contains all sorts and conditions of men, every one of whom is himself a complicated composite of good and bad, harsh and kind. It is seldom that the motive of any single human act is simple and single; certain it is that the motives of social action within the body of a community are always involved to the highest degree of complexity. Human action may be occasionally for purposes of legal defence reduced to apparent conformity with the forms of logic, but it is gener-

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ally when so reduced that it assumes its most deceptive guise. The person who regards the action and character of individual, class, race, or humanity from the simple and single view point of his own status and condition and over the hair-line of his own logic is living the typical life of poverty,—the life of prejudice, bigotry, snobbery, and provincialism. Have you ever caught yourself nurturing a long and deeply-rooted dislike of some person based on some apparently simple interpretation of that person's manner or actions or views, and then on becoming really acquainted with the person found these things suddenly readjust themselves according to new lines of orientation, so that appreciation and admiration advanced into the place of dislike? What probably had happened was that you had through sympathetic acquaintance with the individual found your way to the correcter view point whence the lines of action and character in that human life assumed the aspect of a more sensible and harmonious plan. The gossip, personal prejudices, and cliques which haunt small towns are due to the presence of data in permanent incompleteness. A fixed prejudice is a case of arrested development. Like the petty village aversions, racial and social prejudices generally affect what is near at hand, what one sees and does not know. The man who has made up his mind that he dislikes Jews or Chinese or some other blood has introduced into his life a persistent source of narrowness, blindness, and poverty. He has raised a barrier between himself and the exceeding richness of human fellowship. He has shut his eyes to the recognition of some things well established in the best experiences and well worth a man's while to know, such as that the poor and lowly are usually kinder and more generous to each other than are the rich, that most people are more good than bad, and that there are few humans and few kinds of humans of whom it may not be said that they are mighty interesting, if you get down where they are.

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Social prejudice is mostly of one sort with racial prejudice. The latter is surely in but small part due to physical aversion, if at all. It is in its substance social and based in difference of inherited manners, garb, tongue, and modes or moulds of thought, in the ways of looking at things. Here we need the historical spirit to aid us to the hub-point, so as to see the spokes straight. The exchange of messages between Togo and the Mikado after the great naval victory rings weird and quaint if not absurd to our occidental ears, but judged in the acoustics of the religious-social atmosphere their fundamental thought has inherited, Togo's attribution of the victory to the "excellent virtue of the Mikado," and the Mikado's satisfaction that he may make therewith "response to the spirits of his ancestors" are no gilded phrases, but expressions rich in beauty, worth, and truth.

It is undoubtedly true that individual or people can safely build its way up into the wider atmosphere of cosmopolitanism only by retaining sure foundations in the system of conduct and the view of life embodied as the vitalizing spirit in the family, the clan, the tribe, or the community from which they sprang. A process of cosmopolitanizing that moves so fast as to sunder connection with these foundations means moral disaster to man or people. And yet the opportunities of the larger life are continually beckoning us away from the narrownesses of village and parish, and the man who is to play the full man's part in the work of the greater world must lay aside the garb and the dialect of the province. We have gradually become a nation in place of an aggregation of states. It was not by a formal governmental union of the thirteen states strung along the Atlantic Coast, but through the uniting of the people of those states in the occupation of land to the westward of them. The national sentiment has steadily worked back from the West toward the East. But local mechanism long since outgrown in the actual conditions of intercourse often survives to the embarrassment

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of our national life. We need national laws for divorce, for the oversight of insurance, for the regulation of the traffic of the great national system of railways. We are a nation and must have national laws for national concerns. We are a nation, and in the great mass of the interests of our lives we are commonly conditioned whether we live in New England, Texas, or California; and it behooves us while holding fast to local safeguards for local interests to court the inspiration of the fuller, richer national life, and be Americans.

Provincialmindedness is in one respect only a larger size of that same selfishness which shows itself within the community as privatemindedness. Nothing proves so conclusively that we are fundamentally and primarily social and civic beings as the aridity, blasting, and death which befall a man who devotes himself to his dooryard, to the utter neglect of his sidewalk. That attitude toward public affairs which bears upon its escutcheon the stirring heraldic legend: "I don't see anything in that for me" holds within it the potency for larger mischief in the future of free institutions than all the criminality of all the burglars and drunkards and murderers in the nation. The free institutions we inherit cannot be entrusted to the keeping of political specialists. The peculiar character of these institutions implies on the part of everyday citizens a political activity animated by public spirit and involving self-sacrifice. When it shall come to pass that no one takes any active interest in politics except those who expect sometime, either directly or indirectly, to get something out of the state, either by way of honor or gain, then the end may fairly be said to have come. All the jobs and all the job-craving and all the job-cravers will then have been rolled up into one gigantic political trust handling government like any other commodity, beef, tobacco, or oil.

One cannot fairly advise a young man to go into politics, if that means office-seeking, and especially if it means

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bread-winning. A man who has the ability to succeed in politics could make a very much better living in business than he can honestly in politics. The political need of to-day is for business men of education and character who will attend elections and caucuses and conventions as citizens and not as politicians. The caucuses are of more importance than the elections, and the conferences than the caucuses. It cannot be expected that a business man will ordinarily find the time to follow politics, but he can at least do what he does regularly, and keep the pressure on. In time he will find himself a force that the politicians reckon with; he will be consulted; his opinions will have weight. The spasmodic citizenship of some of our best people provokes Beelzebub to smile. Nothing disturbs him less than a reform movement or a New Year's resolution. He is a great corporation and holds his attorneys on permanent retainers, and keeps his agents, promoters, and lobbyists always on the watch. If you are going to effect anything important against him you have got to join the organization and fight him with machine-guns and not with mugwumpian bean-blowers.

The canny advice which old business men sometimes give young men to let politics alone, lest it interfere with business and alienate customers is the advice of a small caution that partakes of cowardice. The self-protective type of man that is always looking out for his own precious cuticle and is afraid of bumps will not live the abundant life. A certain amount of risk is inseparable from a generous, virile activity in the full tide of affairs, and a certain number of mistakes is to be expected and they will not matter much, if only you do not lie about them. Football is not much of a lady's game, but a lame knee is better than smooth effeminacy. The abundant life may be full of bruises and toil, covered with dust, and harsh with publicity, but it is a man's life and the life of red blood, which the cautious, cowering life of privatemindedness is not.

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It is a constant temptation of the scholar to hoard his learning as a miser hoards his gold. Pedantry is bullion abstracted from circulation, or jewels hung upon the flesh like ear-rings. Hoarded bullion is dead money, and learning gathered à propos of no social need and suited to no human use is dead knowledge. It is only the learning that has gone over into life blood and can govern action that is capable of being transferred to the awakening of life in others. But here is the crux of all our learning and educating,—to make it move in the veins. If education does not aid us to live more fully and richly, it surely fails. The purpose of all this elaborate mechanism of education cannot be to provide us with recipes or equip us with mystic formulas, or deck us with robes, or make us peculiar beings or members of a caste; its real purpose must be after all, with all its waste and mishits, with all its oscillations and nutations of pedagogic theory, to create in men *good health,* to make red blood flush the veins and fill life to the full with knowing, enjoying, being, and doing.

The subjects taught in schools and colleges are intended to provide good food, not drugs, for growing mental and spiritual organisms; and the purpose of the round of training we call liberal education is to preserve, encourage, and develop good health, plain, normal, sound good health without hypertrophies. It is the good health that staves off infection, conquers illness, and is more contagious than disease. It includes good health of body with power to digest food, breathe air, and carry burdens; good health of mind with power to see straight, arrange concepts, construct thought, devise, invent, and imagine, and above all to use in judgment the priceless sanity of common sense; and thereto are added health of will with power to choose, decide, and act, and health of spirit with unsickened vision of the simple native order of the universe, which is the eternal right, and power to have sympathy with the hearts of men and hold communion with the life of God.

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Among the various forms of institutions devoted to American education the college as guardian of the liberal training is the one that has set itself most distinctly to the task of nurturing the fuller life. In its best significance and use it is the school of the abundant life. It does its greatest work through the establishment of a household. Life is trained and fed and inspired by contact with other life combined with it under the fusing influence of an institutional connection and institutional loyalty. We are social beings and must belong to things; if it is not clans and tribes then it must be societies fashioned after the image of blood-relationships and inspired and informed by loyalties in place of the old blood religions and tribal cults. It is well if these loyalties are exercised toward an institution as noble and clean and rich in ideals as an American college. One healthful result of modern college athletics has been the stimulus it has given to college spirit as a reflex and image of tribal religion. Even the songs and warcries, the dances and pow-wows of the council fire will bear the analogy. To the uninitiated they remain a mystery and "to the natural man foolishness," but they are the power of Athena unto salvation. Many a college man out in life has found himself at the crossways of a vital decision and has chosen the narrower way, because he remembered his college and feared to disgrace her.

Nothing should be permitted within the college to prevent the frank association of men of all grades, conditions, and antecedents. From this point of view the dormitory is better than the chapter-house. The danger of the latter is the insidious encouragement of a snobbish exclusiveness,—a thing utterly hostile to the spirit and intent of the American College. Men are associated in the chapter-house for the creation of a smaller family circle within which helpful intimacies may be assured as they cannot be in the larger forum. This is good, but it must be cautiously guarded lest it compromise the larger interests of the clan and tribe.

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To return again to the mention of college athletics, it must be said that great as is its service to the consciousness of institutional solidarity, it is at present tending with dangerous rapidity toward the conferment of its physical, if not its spiritual blessings, upon a few chosen specialists. It must be remembered that toughening of the vocal chords cannot really be regarded as satisfying the demands of physical culture in terms of achieving to the abundant life.

Though association with one's fellows and athletics weigh heavily in determining the import of the college course, it must be admitted that it is of some importance what one studies. With all the pending disagreements regarding the food-values of different subjects of study, I think we must be approaching agreement on the thesis that leisurely assorted courses selected according to the attractiveness of their announcement, the relation of their hours to convenience of attendance, and the reputation of their purveyors for severity of standard do not combine to make a full meal. It is seldom worth while to choose a course, because one thinks he would like to know something about that subject. As far as specialization is concerned, it is my experience that a student has made a mistake who cannot see at the end of his curriculum that he has brought his work to focus upon some field or method of inquiry and experiences some sense of independent control in the material of some science. It is also my experience that the best specialists, and the ones that wear best, are those who lay broad foundations, eschew attractive short-cuts, and bring their studies gradually toward the apex of a pyramid. All subjects tend to become scientific in their mode of treatment as they are adjusted to the needs of maturer minds. History, literature, and language as taught to advanced students demand scientific method. The real contrast that now shapes itself in the courses of the college is that between humanistic and nature subjects, not that between literary and scientific methods. While nature subjects undoubtedly

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serve more uniformly to quicken observation and encourage precision, they are less successful in quickening the imagination, arousing social ideals, and deepening human sympathy. They encourage more to the use of reasoning based on full data and employing the complete syllogism, but they enfeeble the mind for contingent reasoning and the use of the incomplete syllogism. And yet these latter are the forms we are compelled to employ in most of our life judgments. Here below we see mostly in a glass darkly, and we seldom find opportunity to regulate our lives or determine their choices according to definite, complete and final objective tests such as rule in the success of nature. A man who thinks he can govern his life by pure science is apt to be very wearisome to his neighbors and cumbersome to himself. It has often been said that the nature sciences deal with and disclose the real, but it seems to me far more likely that the real things still are those disclosed in loves and hopes, insights and faith, and that for these the methods of the objective test can only provide constant corrections and adjustments, not defeats.

Life is nourished of life, and it will remain in the future as it has been in the past that the nurture of the suppler larger life and the culture of the sounder health will proceed by use of the products of life. Life is begotten of life, and it will remain in the future as it has been in the past, that the health of the spiritual life passes neither from book or subject but from the life of the master to the life of the pupil. The greatest education is the giving of life, and the greatest teacher was one who came that ye might have life,—and have it more abundantly.

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THE ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE PHILIPPINES.[1]

BERNARD MOSES.

The system of primary instruction established under Spanish rule made formal provision for one male and one female teacher for each five thousand inhabitants. But even this inadequate provision was never carried out. There was practically no provision made for the education of the bulk of the inhabitants. There were few schoolhouses, no suitable furniture or apparatus, and no proper text-books. Where there was a schoolhouse it was occupied by the teacher, and the school was held in a part of the building not desired for the residence. Where there were no schoolhouses, which was the ordinary condition, schools were held in the residences of the teachers. School rooms entirely without furniture were not unusual, and in this case the pupil sat on the floor. The teachers were inadequately paid, and to increase their meager incomes they collected tribute from the pupils. The instruction covered reading, writing, sacred history, and the catechism; in some of the towns the four elementary arithmetical processes were also taught, and a little book on geography was used as a reading book. Girls were taught embroidery and some other forms of needlework. From the beginning the schools were

[1] From Lectures on the Governments of Dependencies, University of California.

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very largely, if not entirely, under the supervision of the religious orders, who were disposed to emphasize secondary and higher education for a few pupils, rather than to promote the primary education of the masses. Special stress was also naturally laid on subjects connected with the Christian religion. The result of this policy was that a few persons stood out prominently as educated Filipinos, while the great mass of the people were either not educated at all or furnished only the rudiments of knowledge, learning merely to read and write. The little school instruction the average Filipino had did not give him power of independent thought. There was a disposition on the part of the pupils to give back like phonographs what they had heard or read or memorized. As a rule they possessed mechanical skill, and excelled in writing and drawing, but the Spaniards made very little use of this marked capacity.

It is stated that when the Spaniards took possession of the islands the members of several of the tribes could read and write their own languages, but it is probable that the utterances on this subject are extravagant. At present there is no tribe all the members of which can read and write either their native language or any other language. During the Spanish period the system of instruction was inefficient. The Spanish minister for the colonies called attention to the fact that the affairs of education had fallen into the hands of the religious orders. In a report made December 5, 1870, he said that "while every acknowledgment should be made of their services in earlier times, their narrow exclusively religious system of education and their imperviousness to modern or external ideas and influences, which every day become more and more evident, render secularization of instruction necessary."

Yet the system of instruction established by the Spaniards remained essentially unchanged until the advent of the Americans. In a typical school the pupils read at first a religious primer in the native language, and later a work

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on Christian doctrine. The pupils were obliged to commit to memory the exact words of the text-book. Then the teacher heard one pupil at a time while the others were studying aloud, apparently doing their best to drown the voices both of the teacher and of the pupil reciting. The instruction was thus tediously mechanical, noisy, and inefficient. The schools had no daily programmes, and were consequently usually in confusion. The teachers were underpaid and held only an inferior position in the community. Little or no effort was made to increase the professional knowledge or efficiency of the teacher, and the teachers themselves manifested little professional enthusiasm. Not only had the schools under the Spanish régime no prescribed courses of study, but also no definite standards for each year. They were in charge of persons badly trained or without training, and were held in unsuitable and unsanitary buildings.

While the Islands were under the control of the American army, important steps were taken towards establishing schools and improving the system of instruction. Better text-books were brought into use; officers of the army were appointed to be superintendents of schools; soldiers in some instances were detailed to teach English; but the difficulty of getting a sufficient number of properly trained teachers was insurmountable. Without more radical measures than the officers of the army felt justified in taking, it was impossible to lift the schools out of their chaotic condition.

Under the authority of the Military Governor forty-one thousand dollars were expended for stationery and text-books. The Filipinos were eager to learn English, but the soldiers detailed to teach them were not uniformly successful. When, therefore, the power to make laws and control the expenditure of the insular funds passed to the Commission, the organization of an effective public school system was one of a number of subjects that needed early attention.

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Before leaving Washington, the Commission sought a proper person for the office of General Superintendent of Education. It was recognized that the conditions under which it was proposed to establish a system of public instruction were unfamiliar to American teachers and superintendents, and that in the proposed appointment there was risk of securing the services of a person successful in America, but who might have become rigid in his ideas of methods and be without the power of adapting himself to the strange circumstances of the Islands. The most strongly recommended candidate was Dr. Fred W. Atkinson, principal of a high school in Springfield, Mass. At a meeting of the Commission, therefore, on the transport "Hancock," between San Francisco and Honolulu, on April 23, 1900, Dr. Atkinson was elected General Superintendent of Education for the Philippines, at an annual compensation of six thousand dollars, with an allowance for travelling expenses for himself and wife, from Springfield to Manila and return, and for such other travelling expenses as he might incur in visiting the Indian schools at Carlyle, Pa., Hampton, Va., the Tuskegee Institute in Alabama, and other schools. On September 1, 1900, he assumed the duties of his office, and was at the same time made acting superintendent of schools in Manila. He was relieved of the duties of this latter position by the arrival of Dr. David P. Barrows in October.

It was recognized very early that in order to attain efficiency and a proper standard of instruction, the schools must be under a centralized management. The general superintendent was, therefore, given extensive authority; and it was provided that he should be assisted by division superintendents, who should reside in the several divisions of the archipelago. The law at first recognized ten of these divisions. Under the supervision of the general superintendent each division superintendent exercised immediate control over the schools of his division.

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The original bill framed to organize public instruction in the Philippines was brought before the Commission on the 11th of January. It was made brief in the expectation that it would be amplified later, when its amendments and modifications might be based on a fuller knowledge of the social conditions and the needs of the people in different parts of the Islands. It had already been determined that every important bill should be discussed in public, and that any person interested might take part in the discussion, and oppose or support the provisions of the bill under consideration. The public discussion of this bill extended over many days. The section that excited more comment than any other was that treating the relation of the schools to the church. It became manifest in the course of the discussion that there were two opinions in the Commission on this subject. Two of the members were in favor of making the public schools in the Philippine Islands hold the same relation to the church as the public schools in the United States. The three others wished to introduce the system tried for a short period at Faribault, Minnesota. A certain element in the church in America approved of this plan, and this fact furnished a political consideration in favor of its adoption. The section covering this subject was presented in the following form:

"No teacher or other person shall teach or criticise the doctrines of any church, religious sect or denomination, or shall attempt to influence the pupils for or against any church or religious sect in any public school established under this act. If any teacher shall intentionally violate this section, he or she shall, after due hearing, be dismissed from public service.

"*Provided, however,* that it shall be lawful for the priest or minister of any church established in the pueblo where a public school is situated, either in person or by a designated teacher of religion, to teach religion for one-half an hour three times a week in the school buildings to those

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public-school pupils whose parents or guardians desire it and express their desire therefor in writing filed with the principal teacher of the school, to be forwarded to the division superintendent, who shall fix the hours and rooms for such teaching. But no public-school teacher shall either conduct religious exercises, or teach religion, or act as a designated religious teacher in the school building under the foregoing authority, and no pupil shall be required by any public-school teacher to attend and receive religious instruction herein permitted. Should the opportunity thus given to teach religion be used by the priest, minister, or religious teacher for the purpose of arousing disloyalty to the United States, or of discouraging the attendance of pupils at such public school, of creating a disturbance of public order, or of interfering with the discipline of the school, the division superintendent, subject to the approval of the general superintendent of public instruction, may, after due investigation and hearing, forbid such offending priest, minister, or religious teacher from entering the public school building thereafter."

In the discussion of the proposed law only a few of those who participated spoke in favor of the provisions of this section. All of the Filipinos but one opposed the introduction of the Faribault plan. Two or three speakers advocated projects not involved in the bill. Thomas G. del Rosario, representing the newly formed federal party, wished to have the first section require that primary instruction should be gratuitous and compulsory. He was informed by the Commission that the bill as originally drawn provided for compulsory instruction, but, in view of the fact that existing schoolhouses and other facilities in the Islands were entirely inadequate to provide for all the children of school age, it was thought expedient to postpone the enactment and enforcement of such a requirement. Senor Rosario urged, moreover, that the section providing for religious instruction in school buildings should be

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stricken out. He expressed the belief that it would be a source of discord in the field of public instruction. He held that the schools and the church should be kept absolutely distinct, and affirmed that this concession to the church was opposed to the sentiments of the mass of the Filipino people. He cited as evidence of the attitude of the Filipino people on this question the action of the Malolos Congress, which, after thorough argument, decreed the absolute separation of the church and the state.

Modesto Reyes advocated the appointment of a council to act in conjunction with the general superintendent; and also the establishment of a school of agriculture near Manila. Pedro A. Paterno supported the plan of having a council to advise with the general superintendent. He wished the law to direct the superintendent more specifically as to places in which schools should be established, and urged that there should be a school in every barrio, or one for every five hundred inhabitants. Dr. Xeres y Burgos appeared, as he said, not on behalf of any political party or church organization, but as the father of a family interested in its welfare. He directed his remarks entirely to the section treating of the relation of the church to the schools. He amplified the arguments already advanced against religious teaching in the school buildings, and urged the omission of this section. He feared the concession proposed would engender strife and bitterness, and bring to the surface again all the ills against which the Filipinos had struggled, and from which they now believed themselves free. Individual liberty would be limited, and the subtle influence of the churchmen would impose itself further and further upon the consciences of the people and gradually stifle all political freedom. If the priests of the several creeds wished to spread their faiths, they might do so freely in their churches or in other places without the assistance of the state, but under its vigilance. He expressed his belief that if the Filipinos who love their

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country could vote on this question the proposed section would not be adopted.

Another view of the question was presented by Manuel Ravago, manager of "Libertas," a newspaper conducted in the interest of the friars. He spoke of the work done by the Catholic Church in the Islands and its strong hold on the hearts and minds of the people. The people wished their sons and daughters taught the Catholic faith and no other, and as they supported the schools they had the right to demand that the teachers should be Catholics, and that only Catholic schools should be established. If other sects existed they were in the minority, and if they wished to teach their religion, they should maintain their own teachers. He objected to the statement that religion should be taught in the churches, because the people were accustomed to have religion taught in the schools, and because in the country districts churches were not easily accessible. The parents could not give religious instruction, as they were not familiar with the church doctrines. He urged, therefore, that religion should be taught in the schools, but that the teaching should be confined to the Catholic religion. He wished the section in question to be amended so as to provide: 1. That all primary teachers throughout the archipelago should be Catholics; 2. That as long as the Catholic religion continued to be the universal religion professed in the Philippines it should be taught in the schools; 3. That this religious instruction should form a part of the daily instruction which the teacher should be compelled to impart to the children who attended the school. Referring to the project to take teachers from America, Senor Ravago argued that such teachers should be brought only in case sufficient native teachers could not be had, and then only to the extent of this deficiency. He expressed his belief that there was no need of American teachers; the teaching of English did not create a necessity. He held that the native teacher was better qualified to teach the

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Filipinos than American teachers. Furthermore, the United States could not send teachers to the Islands, because it did not have enough for its own needs.

The president stated to Senor Ravago that the amendments proposed were clearly in violation of the instructions of the Commission, and of every principle that prevails under the American constitutions, whether state or national; and that they could not possibly be adopted by the Commission. Senor Rosario then replied to Ravago, and affirmed that the position taken by the *Centro Catolico de Filipinas,* represented by Ravago, was the best argument he could produce against permitting a participation of the church in the affairs of the schools; that what the church wanted, and has always wanted, was the exclusive control of education. He denied the statement that seven million Filipinos, or any considerable number outside of the religious orders, desired religious instruction in the schools. The very thing the *Centro Catolico* was contending for was the thing that had brought down Spanish sovereignty in the Islands; for the revolution of this people was not a political war, and was not against the Spaniards, but was against the desire on the part of the church to impose itself upon every action of the people. Senor Rosario rejected the conclusions of the previous speaker concerning American teachers, saying that what the Islands needed was new modes of thought and new modes of instruction; and that as English was the commercial language of the Orient it should be given the first place in the instruction of the children.

Senor Cataline Sevilla, a Filipino teacher of much experience and a writer on education, took up the theme that engaged the special attention of all the speakers. He said that while it was the evident purpose of the law to separate religious instruction from the teaching in the public schools, he believed that the permission it was proposed to give to teach religion in the school buildings, even though

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outside of school hours, would vitiate the intention of the Commission. He called attention to the fact that the majority of the teachers were Catholics and subject to the influence of the priests, at the same time affirming that he was a Catholic. As the law in the form proposed would give the priests the right to use the schoolhouse, the result, especially in country districts, would be to perpetuate the old order of affairs. The teachers would be under the religious dominion of the priests, and would be compelled to give religious as well as secular instruction to the children; that is, they would be required to see that the children were kept in the school room, to attend to the religious instruction which the parents wished them to receive. In case Protestants demanded this privilege where the teachers were Catholics, the situation would be embarrassing; for as Catholic teachers they might be instructed by the priests to have nothing whatsoever to do with Protestantism.

Replying to the assertion that the churches would be inconvenient for religious instruction, Senor Sevilla maintained that this would not be the case in Manila, while in the country districts houses could be readily found that would be suitable for the purposes of instruction; and this would prevent the government, the children, or the teachers from having anything to do with religious differences, and the schoolhouse from being the source of disorder.

In response to a query as to what would probably be the attitude of the people should religious teaching be prohibited in the school buildings, the speaker said that such an order had been in effect more than a year, and yet over two hundred and forty pupils were enrolled in his school and he had noticed no falling off in attendance. He thought that this would be the case in all the large towns, but he could make no statement concerning the smaller places, as he was not familiar with them.

In a brief address, Senor Maseras called attention to the need of better schoolhouses, stating that he had been

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for eight years a hygienic inspector, but that his recommendations had not been followed. He referred to the fact that teachers lived in the schoolhouses and took boarders, and that frequently pigs were staked out in the rooms. He was opposed to the co-education of the sexes, holding that the maintenance of such a system in the islands was impossible. His conservatism was further manifest in his endorsement of the opinions of Ravago and the *Centro Catolico,* and in his recommendation of an amendment to provide for a committee of censorship for the examination of text-books, in order that they might contain nothing obnoxious to the Catholic church or the friars.

Later in the course of the discussion Senor Sevilla was again heard. He referred to the fact that the law did not provide what qualifications Filipino teachers should have in order to secure positions, nor what disposition would be made of teachers who had acquired rights under the Spanish régime. He showed the basis of his remarks by explaining that under the Spanish system a teacher acquired a vested right to his position, and after a certain period of service was allowed to retire on a pension. He wished to know whether such rights would be respected by the United States, and also whether the American teachers would have charge of the schools and the native teachers be merely assistants, or whether native teachers would be continued as principals, the American teachers simply teaching English. In reply to his inquiries he was told that the selection of teachers was left to the superintendents, and whether the native teachers were continued as principals or as assistants would depend upon their qualifications; that the United States recognized no vested right to civil positions, although it was its policy to deprive no person of his position arbitrarily or without reason, as long as he served the government faithfully.

The brilliant Filipino lawyer, Felipe de Calderon, spoke, in the beginning of his address, in favor of the project to

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create an advisory board to assist the general superintendent. His utterances on the main topic of the discussion were more extreme than the facts seemed to justify. He said that if the law did not contain a provision allowing priests to teach in the schools, within five days there would not be a child in attendance. His attention was, however, called to the fact that religious teaching had been prohibited for more than a year without any such results as he had predicted. Still he believed that public opinion would favor religious teaching in the schools; and he gave little weight to the provisions of the Malolos constitution, saying that it was never enforced. Referring to the section providing for a normal school, he inquired whether it was designed for women as well as for men. When told that it was for both, he stated that under existing conditions in the Islands a separate normal school for women would have to be provided, or no women would attend. In this there was more of prejudice than of prophetic vision. The fact of the admission of both sexes has not apparently hindered the attendance of either, and has caused no more embarrassment than appears in the normal schools of America.

The discussion of the school bill by volunteers from the general public was closed by Senor Pedro Serrano, who argued that the law should provide for the compulsory attendance of children who were not under the control of parents. In cases where there were parents, the desire to have their children educated would render such a provision unnecessary. He referred to the control exercised by the church over education during Spanish times, and its suppression of all reforms in the schools. With this church pressure removed he believed that the Filipino teacher would prove both willing and capable and would give good results. When questioned as to the advisability of the coeducation of the two sexes, he replied that he not only thought it feasible, but that it would prove more expedient than the system followed heretofore. He expressed the

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belief that the Spanish system rather conduced to immorality instead of tending to prevent it; and that the adoption of the American system would result in gaining for women the same freedom and the same respect that existed in Anglo-Saxon countries.

Several days after the close of this public hearing the school bill was taken up in a public session, amended, and discussed by members of the Commission. Professor Moses moved a number of amendments that were unanimously adopted. The final amendment to strike out the section already quoted, concerning the relation of the schools to the church, and insert a briefer form, did not meet the approval of the whole Commission. The section it was proposed to insert was in the following words:

"No teacher, or other person, shall teach the doctrines of any church, religious sect, or denomination, in any public school established or maintained under this act."

On this amendment Professor Moses spoke at length, calling attention in the beginning to the almost unanimous opposition which the Filipino speakers had offered to the section as printed in the bill under discussion. An important objection to the section in question was found in the fact that it drew a technical rather than a real line of separation between the church and the state. It provided for the religious instruction of pupils in the schoolhouse, but made a technical distinction between the hour in which such instruction might be given and the hours in which secular instruction might be given. He expressed the view that it would be desirable to make either a real separation or no separation. He referred to those portions of the instructions of the Commission relating to the separation of church and state, which provided emphatically that such separation should be "real, entire, and absolute," and affirmed that the separation provided by the section in question was not real, entire, or absolute; that it was a technical separation, and for that reason more

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or less in violation of the instructions of the Commission. The purpose of his amendment was to establish here the same liberties, the same privileges, and the same freedom from ecclesiastical interference which had come, through long experience, to prevail in the United States. Such would be the logical course to pursue, and if friction resulted it would be possible to make variations and concessions as they might be found to be expedient. He suggested that the people of these islands, having submitted to the sovereignty of the United States, could properly demand that the conditions which had made life endurable, prosperous, and free in the United States should be established here. If these privileges were accorded them, there would be little ground for complaint on their part; for the American Union stands for the fullest degree of liberty that is enjoyed, or was ever enjoyed, by any great nation. It was a doubtful policy, therefore, to depart from the course which experience had shown to be a good one, and enter upon an experiment. This would be placing the Filipinos in a position which was directly opposed to their aspirations. It had been suggested that an amendment like the one here proposed would leave the schools deserted. The eagerness of the youth of the Islands to enter American schools, and the fact that where religious instruction had been excluded from the schools in Manila and elsewhere for more than a year, no such result had obtained, justified the statement that such fears were groundless. While compromises were sometimes necessary, the present proposed compromise had not been loudly called for anywhere, had not received any considerable support in any country. It had been tried for a short time in a certain State in the United States, and there abandoned.

Attention was called to the fact that the Filipinos themselves, when they had undertaken to set up an independent government, had given strong indications that they were in favor of such liberty as was sought to be introduced by the

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proposed amendment. It was urged, from a practical standpoint, that the schools should be left free for purely educational purposes; that native teachers would have to be educated in English; that there would have to be various conferences between teachers and superintendents, and between teachers and teachers; and that for all these uses the school buildings would be required. Teachers needed them also in order to prepare for their work. It was contended that the step contemplated in the amendment advocated would be an easy one to take at the time, as practically everybody conceded it to be the logical and necessary step, considering the form of government it was proposed to establish. In conclusion the speaker stated that his amendment did not interfere with the functions of any church, or of any religion; that it was realized by him and by every thoughtful person that religion was a vital element in civilization, and that no one would be so unwise as to interfere in any way with the operation of that force upon which all rely to carry civilization to its highest and best form.

Judge Taft in supporting the original section concerning the relation of the church to the schools, or a merely verbal modification of it, referred to the formidable opposition to it that had been developed, and affirmed that in the difference of opinion among the Commissioners there was not the slightest religious prejudice; it was a question simply of school policy and general policy on which a difference existed. The decisions of the courts had sufficiently indicated that the Faribault system was not unconstitutional, and, although it might represent a departure from American customs, the different conditions prevailing in the Islands might justify its adoption. The United States had reached its present attitude on this question gradually, and he believed the best policy was to make the change here as little radical as possible within the instructions. As the Filipinos who had argued against the section represented

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the liberal wing of the Catholic church, it would be unsafe to regard their views as expressing those of the great mass of the people on this point. As to the Americans who opposed the bill, he believed their views were influenced considerably by the possible additional difficulty in carrying on the schools. It was also possible that some few of the Americans were quite as open to the charge of religious prejudice as those whose influence they feared. He believed the position of the ecclesiastical authorities under the American government was so different that they could not abuse with impunity the privileges offered by this section.

Referring to the attitude of the *Centro Catolico de Filipinas,* Judge Taft affirmed that the propositions of that union were so utterly impossible that he did not believe the able and educated hierarchy of the church could have devised the making of them. The Catholics of America were intensely interested in the education of the Filipino people, and they would understand that, if the section as proposed was adopted, the Commission had gone as far as it could to reconcile the desires of sincere Catholics with the restrictions placed upon the Commission by its instructions. The fact that the patrons of the Liceo de Manila, a private, non-sectarian school, had petitioned to have religious instruction given in the school, was taken as indicating the real sentiment of the people in this matter. It was of the highest importance that the Filipino people should understand that the Commission had not been sent to the Islands to change the religion of anybody, and if they could be made to understand this by enacting the section in question, then it would be worth all the inconvenience or occasional friction between over-zealous priests and tactless teachers, which might possibly occur. If the section failed of its purpose, as it might, it would only be after our good faith in attempting to show these people that the American government and its representatives are

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neither pro-protestant nor anti-catholic had been made manifest.[1]

At the close of Judge Taft's speech a vote was taken on the debated section. The form providing for the introduction of the Faribault system was adopted, Taft, Worcester, and Wright voting for it; Ide and Moses, against it. In spite of this difference of opinion respecting this single feature of the proposed law, the bill in the form finally given to it was voted unanimously, and was the effective beginning of the organization of a system of public schools for the Philippine Islands.

It was provided that the primary instruction instituted under this law should be free; that the general superintendent should appoint a city superintendent of schools for Manila, the division superintendents, and such teachers and clerks as were authorized by law; that he should fix the salaries of the division superintendents and teachers within the limits prescribed by law; that he should determine the curriculum of primary, secondary, and other public schools; that he should divide the archipelago into not more than ten school divisions; that he should prescribe plans for the construction of schoolhouses; that he should make contracts for the purchase of school supplies authorized by law; and that he should have power to determine the towns in which English teachers, to be paid out of the Insular Treasury, should teach. The general superintendent was required to examine and pass upon all requisitions made for funds by division superintendents and submit them to the Chief Executive for transmission to the Commission. He was required, moreover, to exercise general supervision over the entire department. This law also provided for a superior advisory board of education composed of the general superintendent and four members to be appointed by the Commission, which should meet regularly once in two

[1] Minutes of the United States Philippine Commission (Public Session), January 11, 1901–January 21, 1901.

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months, and special meetings might be called by the general superintendent.

The ninth section of the school law defines in detail the powers and duties of the division superintendent. He may appoint native teachers, and fix their salaries within limits prescribed by law. "He shall make careful investigations into the agricultural conditions existing in his division and shall make report thereon to the general superintendent of public instruction, with a view to aiding the general superintendent in making recommendations as to the places and number of the agricultural schools hereafter to be established. He shall see to it by personal visits and by requiring reports from the principal teacher of each school that the curriculum for primary and secondary schools prescribed by the general superintendent of public instruction is complied with. He shall make himself familiar with the supplies and text-books needed in each school in his division, and shall make report of the same at as early a date as possible, in order that they may be contracted for and furnished by the general superintendent. He shall appoint one-half of the local school board in each pueblo in his division. He shall have and maintain his residence and office in one of the large towns of his division, from which all the pueblos in his district can be most conveniently reached."

The local school board, one-half appointed by the division superintendent and the other half elected by the municipal council, holding office for two years, was given certain advisory powers. It might visit from time to time the schools of the pueblo and report bi-monthly to the division superintendent their condition and the attendance of pupils. It might recommend sites and plans to the municipal council for schoolhouses to be erected. It might adopt rules, subject to the supervision of the division superintendent, for assigning the pupils of the pueblo to the several schools, in case the pueblo had more than one school. It might

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report annually to the municipal council the amount of money which should be raised by local taxation for school purposes. Whenever it might consider it necessary, it might report directly to the general superintendent as to the condition of the schools of the pueblo, and make such suggestions as might seem expedient.

This law provided that the English language, as soon as practicable, should be made the basis of all public school instruction, and that soldiers might be detailed as instructors until such time as they might be replaced by trained teachers. To supply the demand for trained teachers, authority was given to the general superintendent to obtain from the United States one thousand such teachers at monthly salaries of not less than seventy-five dollars and not more than one hundred and twenty-five dollars, the general superintendent to determine, within these limits, the salary of each teacher in accordance with the efficiency of the teacher in question and the importance of the position held.

Besides its general provisions, this law established three special schools. The first was a normal school, to be organized at Manila for the education of Filipino teachers. The second was a school of trades, which was also to be maintained at Manila. This was designed to instruct the Filipinos in the useful trades, to give them skill in working in wood and metals. The third was a school of agriculture, which was to be established in the island of Negros.

Before the enactment of the school law the Commission had assumed control of the schools that had come down from the Spanish régime or had been organized under the military authorities. To these it added, shortly after the first of September, 1900, a system of night schools. The first of these schools, organized on the initiative of the Commission, was opened in the district of Manila known as Sampoloc, and was maintained from 7:30 to 9 o'clock for three evenings in the week. The eagerness of many

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mature persons to learn English and the large measure of success that attended the work of the first night school led to the early establishment of two other schools of a similar character, one in the walled city and one in Binondo. There were classes for women, taught by women, as well as classes for men.

The enrollment in the night schools increased very rapidly; the number of pupils rose in the course of a few weeks to over nineteen hundred. Many occupations were represented; there were clerks, merchants, newspaper reporters, bookbinders, salesmen, teachers, police officers, firemen, secretaries, mechanics, cigar makers, janitors, physicians, laborers, barbers, and persons from a variety of other callings. At first only the English language was taught; later other subjects were introduced, particularly history, arithmetic, and geography. Some of the schools had classes in bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, and telegraphy. Persons wishing to enter the civil service, or persons already employed in that service resorted to the night schools for the preparation necessary for their admission or promotion. Filipino teachers, knowing that English would ultimately be the language used in public instruction, took advantage of the facilities here offered to fit themselves to hold their positions under the new régime. The night schools that were subsequently established in provincial towns where American teachers had been stationed were attended by members of all classes. The municipal officers, and sometimes the governors of provinces, embraced this opportunity to acquire a knowledge of English.

Many of the teachers of English in the regular day schools were employed as teachers in night schools, but there were not enough of these available to meet the demand, and recourse was had to other persons, who, except for this work in the night schools, were not employed in teaching. In the summer of 1902, the idea prevailed in some quarters that the night schools had become unduly

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expensive, and it was feared that in some instances, in the less important towns, teachers were receiving the stipulated fifteen dollars a month for teaching night school classes too small to justify the expenditure. On the 14th of July, 1902, a section was introduced into an appropriation bill that was intended to correct any abuse that might have arisen in the maintenance of classes with inadequate attendance. This law provided that no night school should be maintained in the city of Manila or elsewhere at the public expense, in which the average attendance should not be at least twenty-five pupils over the age of fourteen years. In this case the zeal for economy imposed too severe restrictions. There were circumstances in which a night school was needed, but where an average attendance of twenty-five might not be had. In some cases the attendance was unavoidably irregular, and a large and unwieldy number would have to be enrolled in order that the average attendance might reach the number required. Under this provision several of the night schools were discontinued. Whenever, with special effort, the attendance of a school was increased to meet the requirements of the law, the quality of the instruction naturally suffered deterioration in consequence. The law of October 8, 1902, applied a remedy in reducing the required average attendance. By this law the general superintendent was given power to establish night schools, but no night-school class might be maintained at the expense of the city of Manila or of the insular government that had not an average attendance of at least fifteen pupils over fourteen years of age. Hitherto the night schools had been conducted under administrative authority, but by this act they were given a strictly legislative status.

The law of October 8 divided the Archipelago into thirty-six school divisions. The city of Manila constituted one of these divisions. Except in a few instances where two provinces were united in one division, the boundaries

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of the divisions were the same as the boundaries of the provinces. In four of the divisions, Benguet, Lepanto-Bontoc, Nueva Vizcaya, and Paragua, largely inhabited by uncivilized tribes, the respective governors acted, without additional compensation, as division superintendents. In each of the other divisions provision was made for a regularly appointed division superintendent. The annual salaries provided for the division superintendents ranged from one thousand five hundred to two thousand five hundred dollars, with three thousand dollars as the salary of the superintendent of the Manila schools.

Provision was made for secondary instruction by an act passed March 2, 1902. It was designed to make this an affair of the province, and the law was so framed as to give the provincial authorities freedom to determine the character of the instruction that should be given in the secondary schools. This was rendered necessary by the great variety of conditions existing in the different provinces. It was made the duty of the provincial board to provide, if it should deem it expedient, such school building or buildings in the province as might be necessary to be used for the free secondary instruction of pupils resident in the province, "such secondary instruction being understood to include, in addition to academic and commercial subjects, manual training, instruction in agriculture, and normal-school instruction."[1] Under this broad definition of secondary instruction it was possible for the provincial authorities to lay stress on those subjects that were more especially needed in the province in question, and by this the law was made applicable to all the various existing conditions. These secondary schools were to be maintained at the expense of the provincial treasury, and were subject to the supervision of the division superintendents and of the general superintendent. It might happen that the financial condition of the province would

[1] Public Laws enacted by the Philippine Commission, No. 372.

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not justify the maintenance of a school of secondary instruction; in such a case the Commission might meet the expense of conducting such a school until such time as it should decide that the province might assume the obligation. If, for any reason, it should be determined that a secondary school should not be established in any given province, pupils from that province might be enrolled in a secondary school in Manila or in any province where such a school was maintained, the province supporting the school thus patronized being authorized to collect a tuition fee from the treasury of another province in which the pupil resided.

Some of the interior towns presented a peculiar problem. Few if any of the inhabitants knew any language but a native dialect. In view of the demands of other and more important towns, they could not be supplied by the insular government with American teachers, or with suitable Filipino teachers; they were too poor to offer effective attractions to teachers of any sort. There were no institutions within reach where their own youth might be trained to be teachers. It was clear that if they were entirely neglected their barbarism would perpetuate itself. As an amelioration of the situation, it was provided by law that the municipalities in question might expend from the school funds or from any municipal funds not otherwise appropriated forty pesos a month during the school year towards the support of two residents of the municipality at any public secondary school established under the department of public instruction. The municipalities included under this provision were those where no American public school teacher was maintained, or where there was no public school of secondary instruction. The persons thus supported should be one young man and one young woman, whose respective ages should be not less than fifteen nor more than twenty-five years, and whose parents should not be able to pay their expenses while attending a secondary

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school. It was provided, moreover, that these persons should be appointed by the president of the municipality, with the approval of the majority of the members of the council, subject to confirmation after one month's attendance by the principal of the school in which they might be appointed to receive instruction. It was understood that the persons receiving this support would be trained for teachers, and their services, on due compensation, might be claimed by the municipality.

Under the Spanish régime, educational effort was directed to topics not especially important for the development of the material interests of society. This fact determined in a measure the policy of the American government. It became clear to the authorities very early that the theoretical teaching of the Spaniards should be supplemented by instruction in subjects immediately practical. To reach this end the first school law provided for the establishment of a school of agriculture, a school of trades, and a normal school. If the school of trades was not at the very beginning successful in interesting a large number of pupils, this was due mainly to a strong social prejudice against manual labor that existed in the Philippines, as well as in all other lands which had been long under Spanish dominion. A Filipino lad remarked on one occasion that the physical training required in a school of mechanical trades was quite appropriate for Americans who were strong in their arms, but was not appropriate for Filipinos who were strong in the head. This conceit and the aversion to manual labor developed by the example and teachings of the Spaniards and by a climate inducing lassitude and indolence made it necessary to approach the character which it was designed instruction in the Philippines should ultimately assume, by a somewhat round-about method. Before significant results with respect to any form of instruction could be achieved, an enthusiasm for education had to be awakened and the children led to acquire the habit of going to school. These

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ends could not be reached by presenting, without alternative, teaching of a kind that ran counter to the notions and prejudices of that part of the people who had any interest whatsoever in the schools. A beginning was, therefore, made on the side of the Filipino's chief interest; and it was fortunate that this involved instruction on a subject of primary and fundamental importance.

The predominant ambition of the young Filipinos was to hold a clerkship under the government, and they naturally did not see how learning to work in wood and metals would advance them towards their desired object. But when it became necessary for the civil government to take over the telegraph lines that had been controlled by the military authorities, a school of telegraphy was established to prepare persons to become operators. Many students were enrolled as soon as the school was opened, and the number increased from week to week. Here was an opportunity for them to fit themselves for an occupation that approached closely the object of their ambition.

After the government printing plant had been established, it was determined to make use of it in teaching young Filipinos the art of printing, and to have instruction furnished under the actual conditions of effective work. With this end in view, the secretary of public instruction, who exercised a general supervision over the affairs of the public printing office, wrote to the several division superintendents of schools throughout the Archipelago, and asked them to recommend a certain number of boys to become apprentices in the bureau of public printing. It was made clear to them that the government would cause them to be instructed in the art of printing, and that it would provide for the most efficient of them opportunities for work in the public printing office. Yet even under these conditions it was found that some of the parents to whom the subject was presented entertained a strong prejudice against having their sons learn a trade involving manual labor. The

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success, however, of some of the boys who applied and were accepted, and their subsequent promotion in the bureau of public printing, with reasonable compensation, helped to weaken this prejudice, and led to the acceptance, by some persons at least, of a more rational view of work. The prejudice, however, remained; and the government had to recognize that the wishes and ambitions of the people had much to do, in the beginning, in determining what form of instruction could be successfully given.

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RESULTS OF THE WAR BETWEEN RUSSIA AND JAPAN.[1]

BERNARD MOSES.

If it were designed that I should speak on this subject in my proper capacity as an historian, I would move to have this discussion postponed for fifty years. We need time to gather up the documents and observe the drift of the new tendencies. In European affairs all the factors are fairly well known; we have observed them in various combinations for more than two thousand years. European history may not furnish a basis for accurate scientific prediction, but it does enable us to make brilliant guesses. The Orient, however, is beginning to run a new course. It is developing social factors that have not been weighed and measured. Our attitude toward the Orient is not that of knowledge, but of interested expectation. This is the time to call out the prophets; for while the war is of our day the important results are all of the future. You have here David and Eli and Moses, but there is not a genuine prophet in the lot. Eli was only a judge, and David a killer of giants, with incidental devotion to poetry.

There are, however, a few facts that have come within the horizon of ordinary vision as a consequence of this war. One of these is that the Japanese can do certain other things as well as write poems to cherry-blossoms. Another

[1] Speech at the Unitarian Club dinner, September 18, 1905.

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significant fact is that they have tasted the blood of a foreign enemy. If we may judge from similar instances in the past, this will undoubtedly strengthen their appetite. For several centuries both the Japanese and the Chinese were willing to live in peace with all the world. They asked no favors, and were slow to resent insults and encroachments. They thought war unprofitable, and magnified intellectual cultivation, and were devoted to the arts of peace. When the Japanese found his honor assailed, he undertook to right the wrong by killing himself. At last he seems to have learned the Christian lesson and adopted the Christian method of killing the other fellow. Drawn away from her policy of reserve and exclusiveness, Japan has taken her first step in imitation of Western aggression. From the strictest self-imposed isolation, she has made her first great move under a policy of expansion. The real significance of this is found not in what has been actually won, but in the stimulated appetite for winning. As I read the history of the world, I do not discover strong nations, after the first conquest, renouncing all thought and desire for a further advance. Conquest breeds conquest. Victory puts iron in the blood. A nation that has overthrown a great enemy is transformed. It is lifted where its vision sweeps a wider horizon. The devil, when he took Jesus up into a high mountain and offered him all the kingdoms of the earth and the glory of them, was a great psychologist; he knew the supreme temptation. The fortunes of war have taken the Japanese up into a high mountain, from which they can behold all the kingdoms of the East. It is not to be supposed, however, that they are conscious of a determination to enter upon a course of conquest; but it is not the conscious decisions or determinations that fix the career and fate of nations; it is what lies back of our conscious proposals, in the instincts and unrevealed impulses of the national spirit, that shapes the history of the race. The conscious design of a nation this

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year does not determine its conduct in the years to come. Few nations have entered upon a career of territorial expansion with a complete and clearly conceived program of their undertaking. The first step is usually taken to secure a needed advantage or to redress a grievance; but the first step reveals the opportunity, and the opportunity makes the policy.

Few nations in the years of their undiminished virility have ever had a more magnificent opportunity than that now presented to Japan. China has been placed under such an obligation as can be fulfilled only by giving to Japan not merely moral support, but also material support in her great undertakings. In rescuing Manchuria from Russia, Japan performed a task which was entirely beyond the powers of China in her present state, and which placed Japan, even without a formal treaty, at the head of an Oriental union. It is not a union of law, but a union founded in the reality of things. The leadership in this union belongs to Japan, not only by virture of her military achievements, but also by reason of her power to use the appliances of Western civilization. The Chinese have already practically assented to this leadership. The Japanese are the accepted masters of the rising generation of China. Already there are about five thousand Chinese students in Tokyo alone, and Japanese teachers in great numbers are distributed throughout the length and breadth of the Chinese Empire.

The Chinese are not slow to appreciate the significance of this situation. They know that the hand of every Western nation is against them. They know that if these nations could have laid aside their unworthy jealousies they would have been glad to spoil China even to the dismemberment of the empire. They will not be slow to discern that their safety is in force, either the individual force of their own government or the force of an alliance in which their nation is a member. They are not fooled

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by America's failure to participate in the partition schemes which the other leading nations entertained. They have rather unmistakable evidence that we do not love the Chinese as a people, but that we have a yearning for their trade; in fact, that we would prefer their trade to their territory. They have many reasons for believing that Japan is the only nation they can safely trust. There is thus presented an opportunity for an understanding with China, an opportunity that will make for Japan a policy favorable to further expansion, unless all the traditions of victorious nations are violated. The alliance between Great Britain and Japan emphasizes the probability that this policy will be carried out. In her madness Russia is quite likely to break over her borders and interfere with the recognized rights of England. The first clash between Great Britain and Russia will leave the Japanese free to move upon Vladivostok and to appropriate the maritime province of Siberia.

Japan's new position and the prospect that China will follow her lead are likely to cause Western nations to lay aside their plan to plunder China. They appear, in fact, to have already postponed the execution of their design to carve up the Chinese territory and apportion it among themselves. Some persons are virtuous by necessity; and that seems to be the state of the Christian nations at present in relation to China. They are restrained from carrying out their schemes for wholesale robbery. They are compelled by the heathen to manifest some regard for Christian principles.

Whenever a nation shows itself capable of warding off invasion and control by an alien race, as Japan has done and as China will do, a distinct gain for the enlightenment of the world is achieved. It is sometimes inevitable that a people of one of the less developed races should fall under the rule of a nation of another race. This, though inevitable, is a misfortune arising from lack of

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civilization. It is unfortunate, because it creates a problem which has thus far remained entirely without a solution, the problem of the relation of the less developed peoples to the dominant nation of the superior race. The rise of Japan to be a self-defending power, and the prospective rise of China to an equal rank with the great nations are facts to be regarded with great satisfaction as limiting the area of these questionable relations between peoples of different races. As one of its results, the war has confirmed the development of a great Oriental state, or a combination of Oriental states, that will be able to maintain complete sovereignty over its whole territory. This will be a distinct gain for civilization. If Russia had won in this conflict she would have extended her sphere of influence over Japan. Japan has, therefore, not been fighting simply to defeat Russia, but rather to show the world that her territory is not to be a sphere of influence for any European power. Another consequence of the war is the drawing together of Japan and China, and the awakening of China to demonstrate the same proposition with respect to her territory. The victory of Japan secures the territorial integrity of China, and establishes the mastery of Asiatics in Eastern Asia. This mastery will probably involve the ultimate withdrawal of all European claims to spheres of influence over Chinese lands.

It will be a great achievement if by the rise of an important Oriental alliance a powerful temptation is removed from Christian nations. They have wished to spoil and dismember China, and it may be expected that they will now assume an appearance of virtue, and pretend that they were not at the point of doing a dastardly and wicked act. It may thus be expected that the victory of Japan will be followed by an awakening of the conscience of the Christian nations, when they find, as a consequence of the war, that they are shut out from vast anticipated opportunities for profitable wickedness.

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Perhaps the most important result of the war as yet in view is the rise of that international sentiment which compelled the cessation of hostilities and urged the formation of the treaty of peace. I recall no instance in all time when so large a number of prominent persons in all the leading nations was so thoroughly and effectively of one mind as in this case. This universal sentiment made the opportunity. The freedom of the United States from all 'entangling alliances,' made its President the only person who could properly issue the call to peace when the crisis came; and this call would have been ineffectual had it not been supported by a powerful international public opinion. For the first time in the history of the world, in fact, there was manifested a public opinion that reached round the world. Hitherto the nations have pursued diverse ideals; they have worked at cross purposes; they have sought almost exclusively their own individual ends, and have taken pride in the roundaboutness of their methods. In this they have hindered the growth of the common sentiments and mutual sympathies which are requisite to the development of an effective and generally recognized system of international law. It is not to be supposed that the unanimity attained in this case will abide without interruptions, but the fact that it has existed for the accomplishment of a great purpose breaks the way for future recurrences of the same phenomenon and indicates that a long step has been taken toward international union on important matters of common concern.

The revival of China under the leadership of Japan is likely to interest particularly the people of the United States. With even less of prophetic vision than either David or Eli possesses, it is possible to see that the day is not far off when China will ask to be placed in the list of the most favored nations; and when the request is made it will be granted. This will make it embarrassing for the United States to attempt to erect or maintain a barrier of

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exclusion in opposition to the wishes of the Chinese Government. Then in order to preserve friendly relations with the Far Eastern nations it will be necessary to extend to them the same privileges and courtesies that we extend to the European nations; and under this condition the maintenance in the United States of the present scale of incomes and expenditures for the great mass of the people will be difficult, if not impossible. Our standard of living as compared with that of all other nations will be seen to be, in general, extravagant; and to the equalizing forces that come from Europe with the flood of immigrants there will be added other equalizing forces from the side of the Orient. The situation will thus present an accumulation of forces tending to knock out the props of our artificial standard of living, and equalize our condition with what is fast becoming the uniform condition of the enlightened parts of the world. Against these equalizing forces the labor organizations and the makers of tariffs are waging a vigorous warfare, but they have to face serious obstacles in the exportation of capital to the regions of cheaper labor, in the growing immigration to the United States, and in the natural additions to the number of inhabitants who find it more and more difficult to secure for themselves lucrative positions in a population of increasing density. Yet in spite of high tariffs and trades-unions we are apparently on the eve of a period, when, by the intimacy of their commercial and other relations, the civilized nations will be drawn toward the acceptance of a common standard of living. The world standard will be reached by lowering that of the United States and lifting up that of some of the other nations; and the first phases of this transformation are already visible in many parts of the world.

The entrance of China and Japan to full standing among the powers will give new prominence to the unsolved problem of the relation between alien races engaged in the same sphere of practical affairs. This problem has

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hitherto arisen chiefly where a nation of European stock has dominated communities of the less developed races. It has appeared in India, in Java, in the Philippines, and in the Southern States of the American Union. England and Holland have insisted on the entire supremacy of the white man, with comparatively little toleration for the ideals and traditions of the subject people. The people of the United States have set out with the fundamental idea of equality, which involves the abolition of race-prejudice, in spite of the fact that it is the preservation of this prejudice, or of race-respect, that has kept the English stock free from the contamination of barbarian blood, and given it its position of power in the world.

Whether we consider the relations between the different races in India, Java, the Philippines, or the Southern States, there is everywhere essentially the same problem presented; and when the greater freedom of intercourse is established between the United States and the Far East, another phase of the same problem will be brought to the attention of the inhabitants of European descent in America. Thus, while as a result of the war the 'white peril' no longer looms for the Chinese or the Japanese on their horizon, the peoples of the West are brought face to face as never before with the far-reaching and undetermined issues involved in the closer relations of Europeans and Asiatics.

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REPORT ON THE BANCROFT LIBRARY.[1]

REUBEN G. THWAITES.

To the President and Honorable Board of Regents of the University of California:—In accordance with your invitation, I have just completed a careful examination of the H. H. Bancroft Library, with a view to ascertaining its condition and, so far as may be, its marketable value, and beg leave to report as follows:

The collection is contained in an isolated two-story brick building, apparently of slow-burning construction, near the corner of Valencia and Army streets. The building is said to be frequently aired; but I found it extremely musty—and while the library is still in good condition, another decade of neglect in this environment will undoubtedly work to the irreparable injury from damp of very much of its contents, particularly in newspaper files, mounted manuscripts, and volumes of pasted newspaper scraps, which classes of matter are peculiarly susceptible to the ravages of mildew and insects.

I had read numerous published and manuscript descriptions of this library, particularly the accounts thereof in Hubert Howe Bancroft's own works—*Essays and Miscellany* (chaps. xv-xviii), and *Literary Industries* (particularly chaps. viii, x, xxi, xxiii). These had prepared me for a considerable collection; nevertheless, I approached the present task of appraisal with the fear that, although doubt-

[1] Submitted to the President and Regents of the University, by Reuben G. Thwaites, Superintendent of the Wisconsin Historical Library, October 14, 1905. See page 188.

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less important, the library had, in the natural enthusiasm of the owner, probably been over-estimated by him. But I arise from my examination with the firm conviction that Mr. Bancroft's several statements have in no sense been exaggerations of the fact. In the main, his range of collection was the vast region of the Pacific slope, from Alaska down through the Central American States; but he also assiduously collected material upon the entire Rocky Mountain district—Montana, Utah, Wyoming, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, and Western Texas. There is also much material—of very great value, although not so inclusive—upon Louisiana under Spanish dominion, and most of the islands of the West Indies: the latter an interesting side excursion, of which no account has been taken in his published descriptions of the library.

I take profound satisfaction in reporting that the collection is found to be astonishingly large and complete, easily first in its own field, and taking high rank among the famous general collections of Americana, such as exist at Harvard University, the Boston Public Library, the Library of Congress, the New York State Library, and the Wisconsin Historical Library. Mr. Bancroft's services to American historical scholarship, in amassing this remarkable array of manuscript and printed sources, entitle his name to be mentioned in connection with those of Force, Draper, Sparks, Prince, George Bancroft, and other great collectors of materials for American history. You will, I am sure, hardly expect me here to enter into anything approaching a detailed description of the Bancroft Library—such a task would require the dimensions of a bulky pamphlet. You have but invited me to give you an appraisal, and this infers an account of the property couched only in general terms.

I. MANUSCRIPTS.

When soliciting the purchase of the library by the State of California, in 1886–87, Mr. Bancroft estimated that he

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had accumulated 1,200 volumes of manuscripts. This is, however, a curious under-estimate; possibly he included only those that were bound. I think, however, that of unbound manuscripts of importance, scattered through the library in shoals, there are sufficient to make perhaps an additional 200 or 300 stout folio volumes.

These manuscripts are, as a rule, of the first importance. So wide is their range that it will be a difficult task even to classify them, and I can here convey but a suggestion as to their character. In the first place, there are numerous manuscript books, such as missals, service books, and early grammars and dictionaries of aboriginal languages. Many of these are valuable chiefly as curiosities—the sort of material suitable for a bibliographical museum, which of itself would obviously be desirable at the University. Also valuable for such a museum are the numerous parchment broadsides—papal bulls and rescripts, governmental proclamations, royal edicts, land deeds, etc., many of them bearing rare and interesting seals. Such documents are often of much historical value, and many could be utilized in connection with the study of paleography, a branch of learning for which we have in our country a relatively small store of material, necessitating the treasuring of what little we possess.

In manuscript material for direct original study of the particular field covered by the Bancroft histories, the collection is surprisingly large. Extremely important in this department are the archives of the Spanish missions. These are, for the most part, apparently careful transcripts of the original mission record books; but there are also many of the original records themselves;—for instance, those of the old San Francisco mission—and these are supplemented by numerous letters and other documents. So far as I can judge, from the amount of time at my command, the mission records appear to be at least fairly complete. When to these manuscripts are added the vast mass of printed

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ecclesiastical material, in the Bancroft collection, it is seen that from this library can for the first time be prepared that great desideratum, a satisfactory study—historical, economic, and social—of the Franciscan and Jesuit coast missions. Closely associated with the mission archives, for purposes of research, are the original presidio records, of which there is a large and interesting collection.

There is also much manuscript material upon Spanish governmental and commercial affairs in North and Central America, and relative to the later Mexican régime. Accounts and letter-books of Russian, Canadian, and American fur companies are numerous. We have here consular papers, originals and transcripts of diaries of early American trappers, traders, overland pioneers, and gold hunters, and the log books of early trading craft—in fact, valuable miscellaneous papers bearing upon every phase of life in the Rockies and upon the Coast. Preëminent in this field, are the very remarkable collections of M. G. Vallejo (50 folio volumes), J. B. Alvarado, Thomas O. Larkin, A. M. Osio, Juan Bandini, A. F. Coronel, Pio Pico, Manuel Castro, I. M. Amador, and Benjamin Hayes—to mention but a few of those absorbed into the Bancroft collection—all of them incomparable store-houses of contemporary Mexican and American letters, accounts, and other documentary material, giving the very heart of California life during the Americanizing process. Obviously these will grow in value as the years pass.

Of great practical importance, also, are several hundreds of the dictated narratives of California and other Rocky Mountain pioneers, some of them covering hundreds of foolscap pages. The historical investigator soon learns to view such personal statements with becoming caution, as generally prepared in the declining years of the narrators, as more or less colored by prejudice, and weakened by faulty perspective. Nevertheless, a fair conclusion may generally be reached in the court of history by striking a

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mean between the conflicting testimony of a cloud of witnesses; especially when, running parallel to this, exists such a mass of corrective contemporary documents as is contained in the Bancroft collection. Most of the actors in the drama of Pacific Coast pioneering have now passed away, so that these apparently careful records of their own statements constitute, with all their possible error, a really priceless possession to the historians of this district.

As incidentally illustrating the wide grasp of Mr. Bancroft's energy as a collector, I was interested in stumbling across several large bundles of important documents bearing upon the Spanish dominion in Louisiana, a field of collection distinctly out of his domain. In short, wherever one turns in the library, manuscripts of often very considerable value appear in bound form, tied up into bundles, or slipped into manila envelopes, until the searcher fairly gasps in astonishment at the enterprise and persistence of the man who could gather into his own possession so comprehensive and far-reaching an accumulation of contemporary records.

These 1,400 or 1,500 volumes of manuscripts, of which about 600 appear to bear strictly upon California, are in fact priceless. I hesitate to place upon them a market value. To such an institution, however, as the Library of Congress, which aims at a general collection of Americana, it is, I think, a conservative estimate to say that they would be considered as worth at least $80,000; this would be exclusive of the dictated statements of the pioneers, which might appear to be of too local a character for an Eastern collection. But to California, the natural home of the Bancroft Library, the value is obviously far greater—if you will, any sum available to that end. In my judgment it would be a serious blow to historical scholarship upon the entire Pacific Coast, for the State of California to allow this material to go elsewhere.

The Draper Manuscript Collection, in the Wisconsin

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Historical Library, numbers but 400 folio volumes, covering the origin of trans-Alleghaney settlement, a field geographically much more restricted than that represented in the Bancroft collection. Yet it annually attracts large numbers of graduate students in history, economics, and social science, involves a very considerable daily correspondence with genealogical investigators in all parts of the country, and has added immensely to the general reputation of the library. Wisconsin could probably not be induced even to estimate the marketable value of this unique collection, even were its sale possible; but rather than lose it, we should be willing to sacrifice any sum whatever, that the Wisconsin legislature might be induced to appropriate. From this statement, it will be seen that my estimate of the cash value of the Bancroft collection is conservative.

II. GENERAL PRINTED SOURCES.

Mr. Bancroft fortified his collection with a very considerable array of the great printed sources more or less affecting his wide geographical field. For studying the Old World roots of Spanish-American affairs, the library contains such important and expensive sets as are exampled by the *Coleccion de los decretos y ordénes,* the *Coleccion de Documentos Inéditos,* the *Reales Ordénes,* the works of Mendoza, *Las Siete Partidas,* and the *Diarios* of the Cortes. These volumes are scattered through the library, but I believe the stretches to be complete. The sets of United States government documents (chiefly in sheep bindings), *Early Laws, Congressional Globe,* and *American State Papers,* apparently are complete between 1805 and 1895. When it is recollected that the University of California's set of these now highly prized publications is weak, and that Mr. Bancroft's constitute, I should judge, among the best half dozen documentary collections in the country, the importance of utilizing his volumes for filling gaps in the General Library will be appreciated.

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I should say that the collection of leading Mexican official and historical sets is probably complete—it certainly is voluminous. His sets of laws, journals, debates, transactions of learned societies, etc., of Central America and the various American states and Canadian provinces within his field of collection, are generally in excellent condition; and there is also considerable material of this character bearing upon the West Indies and Brazil.

Early voyages are prominent features of the Bancroft library. I find upon its shelves the numerous and costly sets of most of the great editors and voyagers: Malte-Brun, Hakluyt, Pinkerton, Saint-Martin, Pieter Vander Aa, Krusenstern, Wilkes, Burney, Richarderie, La Harpe, Langsdorff, Lisiansky, Kotzebue, Cook, Roquefeuil, Perit-Thouars, Beechy, Vancouver, La Pérouse, Meares, etc.; and such other famous collections as the *Annales des Voyages* and *Lettres Édifiantes.* In short, this collection of voyages—works always eagerly sought by students of history—is undoubtedly one of the best and most valuable now extant in America. It was interesting, for instance, to find among his rarities the first (1625) edition of *Purchas, his Pilgrimes,* now worth several hundred dollars.

The maps, atlases, and cosmographies are especially numerous. Not only does one discover here practically all of the celebrated geographies of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, but there is a collection of some 1,200 loose maps, chiefly bearing upon the Pacific Coast of America and the Gulf of Mexico, that is surprisingly rich in rarities. In addition to these are the French and British admiralty charts, and the United States and Russian coast charts within the same field; also about 50 roller maps—state, county, and local—some of them early and rare.

The collection of general printed sources, as above outlined, some of which are available for the University's General Library, as distinct from the Bancroft Library, is probably worth at least $25,000. Portions thereof could not now be bought in open market at any price.

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III. NEWSPAPER FILES, PERIODICALS, TRANSACTIONS, AND SCRAP BOOKS.

Newspaper files are among the most valuable sources for the economic, social, and political phases of history. The largest collections now extant in America, are those of the Library of Congress and the Wisconsin Historical Library —the latter containing 15,000 bound volumes, and the former possibly a few more. The Bancroft Library embraces the equivalent of something over 5,000 volumes, of which 500 or 600 are already bound, the others being tied up in bundles upon the shelves. The majority of these journals range from about 1868 to 1886; but piled in an unassorted heap upon the first floor, are about three cords of miscellaneous Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain papers, ranging from January 1, 1887, to about 1895.

The California branch of the collection includes the earliest as well as the most important files; among them the *California Star* (1847), *Alta Californian* (1849–1885), Sacramento *Daily Union* (75 volumes, 1856–1871), San Francisco *Bulletin* (vol. I, no. 1, Oct. 8, 1865 through 1885), San Francisco *Call* (1863–1884), *Californian* (1847–1848), *California Farmer* (1860–1881), Advocate (1864–1880), and *Chronicle* (1868–1885). There are also upon the shelves such files as those of the Salt Lake *Tribune* (1871–1879) and *Telegraph* (1868); Carson City *Nevada Tribune* (1873–1880); Denver *Tribune, Miners' Gazette, Rocky Mountain News, Rocky Mountain Herald* and *Times,* and notable journals in Alaska, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Mexico.

The sets of periodical literature are numerous and important. Not only do we here find many of the standard popular and specialized sets, all of them valuable in filling gaps in the General Library, but there are a large collection of costly Mexican and Spanish sets, seldom seen in the United States. Among the 550 Mexican volumes of this character—many of them of an official or semi-official character, and thus especially valuable as sources—may be cited

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the *Diario de Avisos, Le Vox de Mexico, El Universal, El Constitucional, El Mansage, El Pajaro Verde, El Eco Nacional, Diaro Oficial,* and *El Monitor Republicano.*

In this connection may be mentioned many valuable sets of transactions of learned societies and institutions in North and Central America, especially those containing monographs bearing upon the history, resources, and commerce of the Pacific Slope.

An interesting and eminently practical feature of the Bancroft Library is the collection of classified newspaper and magazine scraps touching upon its particular field. Some 300 volumes, prominent among them the Hayes Collection, are either bound or mounted on manila sheets ready for binding; and there are also large masses of similar scraps in loose form, thrust into manila envelopes. These scraps are an asset of considerable practical value to scholars, and in time should be carefully indexed for ready reference.

I estimate the marketable value of the newspapers, periodicals, transactions, and scrap books of classified printed matter, at $50,000.

IV. EARLY IMPRINTS, AND OTHER RARE BOOKS.

It is difficult to differentiate these from other classes in the library. Mr. Bancroft has collected into one tier of shelves some 400 volumes under the general label, "Rare Books." But other books, pamphlets, and broadsides, properly coming under this head, are, under his alphabetical arrangement by authors, scattered throughout the library. However, considering only this special collection of rarities, culled by himself, we find them consisting chiefly of bibliographical curiosities, specimens of early Pacific Coast and Spanish-American printing, and material for the study of early linguistics. I have no reason whatever to doubt his published statement (see *Literary Industries,* p. 112), that these selected examples cost him from $35 to $800 each—a

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value surely much enhanced since he acquired them. It would, I am sure, not be unfair to place upon them—although many of these examples would now be considered priceless by scholars—an average trade value of $50 each, a total of $20,000.

V. MATERIAL IN SPECIAL FIELDS OF STUDY.

This extraordinary collection is of course richest in manuscripts and in local history material—by local history, meaning the annals of the several states and territories embraced in the great region which he sought to cover. Nevertheless there is here a vast mass of data available for several other fields of human study, more or less related to history. In the department of American ethnology, particularly the aborigines of the trans-Missouri, the Pacific States, Alaska, Mexico, and the Central American States, the opening of this collection to general research will be an incalculable boon, for there is much therein that has not heretofore been available. The study of American aboriginal linguistics is certain, from the unlocking of this long-closed storehouse, to receive a new impetus. The collection will prove a revelation to scholars who wish to enter this broad field, for the mass of manuscript and printed material thereon is simply astonishing. We have here, also, opportunities for original research along many other lines —exploration, naval and military affairs, colonization, missions and general ecclesiastical interests, political development, the first fruits of scientific inquiry, the beginnings of literature and other arts: in short, the growth of culture in Western North America and along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico and the Carribean Sea, during four centuries of the civilizing process.

This special material, exclusive of that previously enumerated, I should consider worth in the book markets of the world, say $20,000.

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VI. CALIFORNIA PRINTED MATERIAL.

Much of Mr. Bancroft's valuable material for the history of California has already been alluded to under previous classes, such as the priceless records of the Spanish missions and presidios; the mammoth collections made by Vallejo, Larkin, Alvarado, Hayes, and others; files of the best and now excessively rare California newspapers and magazines; the wealth of newspaper scrap books; and, bibliographically curious, most of the first impressions from the earliest California presses at Monterey and elsewhere. There have also been previously touched upon the several hundreds of dictated narratives of leading California pioneers—of great practical service, locally, but which I have preferred not to appraise as a cash asset, for the reason that they probably have small marketable value outside of the state.

In addition to this great mass of manuscript and printed California sources, there is a surprisingly complete collection of printed books and pamphlets relative to the state—journals and debates of constitutional conventions and legislatures, state and local public documents of every sort, books and pamphlets printed in California, travels and descriptions, directories, publications of educational and religious institutions and learned societies, a shoal of state and local histories, statistical data in a hundred forms, miscellaneous leaflets innumerable, portraits of pioneers—in brief, practically everything printed in or about the commonwealth, local or general. All of which is probably complete up to 1887, and fairly representative of later publications to 1895.

This comprehensive collection is of itself worth $50,000 at a low estimate; for probably no state in the Union, outside of Massachusetts and Wisconsin, has been so carefully gleaned for historical purposes. The possession of this California material alone, places the Bancroft Library on a par, from the local standpoint, with the best state historical collections extant.

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VII. OTHER LOCAL HISTORY MATERIAL.

The Bancroft Library is of course not as rich for any of the other states and countries in its special field, as for California; local opportunities for collection were obviously greater here. Nevertheless, so wide was the theatre of its owner's activities, that the total mass of local history material outside of California—more particularly for Mexico and the Western American states, with rather surprising excursions into the West Indies—is quite remarkable.

The Mexican material of this character is probably as comprehensive as could be found on the shelves of any one library in that country—possibly it is even more numerous. It appears to include all of the standard histories and chronicles like those of Zamacois, Orozco y Berra, Alaman, and Bustamane; and such early chronicles as Bernal Diaz, Cavo, Clavigero, Cortés, Herrara, Las Casas, De Laet, Garcilasso de la Vega, Sortozano, and Solis. A collection of over 200 bound volumes of rare and often extremely valuable pamphlets is noticeable as one feature of the Mexican department.

In general, these local history collections are similar in scope and desirability to that already described under California, and the total bulk is naturally much greater. I estimate its market value at $55,000.

VIII. CATALOGUES AND INDICES.

Highly desirable assets in connection with the Bancroft Library are the several manuscript catalogues of and indices to the collection. To facilitate the preparation of the Bancroft histories, its owner had prepared by his assistants several ready-reference lists of this character. During the quarter of a century occupied in making and using this collection, these labor-saving devices took on different forms, the fruits of accumulating experiences:

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(*a*) A card catalogue of books, pamphlets, and newspaper files, is contained in a cupboard on the second floor. The size of these cards is not that now used by librarians, and the terminology is somewhat out of date; but for the time being, until a catalogue can be prepared along modern lines, this will be found fairly useful in the administration of the collection.

(*b*) Two large blank-books, ledger size, contain a one-line finding-list of the library—Vol. I being an alphabetical arrangement by authors, up to about 1880; Vol. II, a supplemental list of like character, up to about 1882.

(*c*) In a similar blank-book is a list of the newspaper files, with (in most cases) an apparently careful enumeration of the actual dates of the individual issues in each set. The entries are chiefly in lead pencil, and the arrangement appears to be irregular; but it is not difficult to use, and the list will be found serviceable in checking up the papers preparatory to binding and scientifically cataloguing.

(*d*) Two large cupboards on the first floor are filled with a classified card index, under brief subject headings, to the principal contents of the books and pamphlets in the collection. This work appears to have been done with care and judgment. The cards approximate the present library standard; they can easily be arranged vertically in trays, and at once be made available to students. The preparation of this index has undoubtedly cost a large sum of money, and will prove an important time-saving invention to those using the library.

(*e*) Three large ledger volumes are filled with manuscript notes upon the cartography of Mexico and of the Pacific Coast generally. The method was curiously laborious—that of alphabetically recording every geographical name found on each of the old maps, and tracing changes in spelling, location, etc. For purposes of detailed cartographical study, of the analytic order, these painstaking notes are surely of considerable practical value.

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(*f*) It was the custom of the Bancroft Library staff to prepare notes—sometimes in outline, but often in detail—upon all imaginable data that might possibly be needed in the histories they were writing. Generally these were upon strips of foolscap of varying length. After being used by the compilers of the books, this skeleton material was either mounted on manila sheets ready for binding, or stowed away in manila envelopes, upon which were penciled memoranda as to the contents, the envelopes being also numbered to accord with their respective subject cards in the index described above, under (*d*). These envelopes are to be found in all portions of the library. They should be carefully examined, and the slips preserved and systematically arranged and perhaps mounted; it seems likely that in time they will be considered useful to many.

(*g*) Another form of rough note-making was the mounting of newspaper and magazine scraps upon manila sheets. Those thought by Mr. Bancroft to be worth binding have already been described under Newspaper Scrap-Books; there is still a considerable number stowed in manila envelopes, together with the foolscap notes already described under (*f*). All should be preserved, and eventually arranged in better condition.

Despite the great cost and considerable practical value of these several manuscript catalogues and indices, in a working library of this character, they obviously are of little use save to the purchaser of the entire Bancroft collection, hence would bring small returns at any sale whereat the library were sold piecemeal. I have, therefore, thought it best not even to attempt to appraise them for the present purpose; it is sufficient if we consider them merely as desirable makeweights.

NUMERICAL STRENGTH.

Mr. Bancroft's own estimate of the size of his Library, fifteen years ago (Ms. letter to A. R. Spofford, October 21, 1890), was as follows:

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Printed books and pamphlets	40,000
Volumes of newspapers	4,000
Maps, atlases, engravings, etc.	2,000
Original manuscripts	3,700
Copied manuscripts	300
	50,000

As he collected in a desultory manner for about five years after that date, his printed books and pamphlets now probably number 43,000. His newspaper volumes (bound and unbound) will, I think, number somewhat over 5,000. The cartographical estimate is substantially correct. But his estimate of the manuscripts perplexes me; for besides the very large collection of important unbound papers, we have some 1,200 bound volumes (generally stout folios), and these must contain far more than an average of 100 manuscripts each—I should say that there must be fully 125,000 of what may legitimately be styled manuscripts.

DUPLICATES.

It is quite impossible at the present juncture, prior to a detailed checking up, to arrive at any close estimate of the duplicates. Mr. Bancroft often bought large collections *en bloc*, besides purchasing freely at auctions from such great Spanish-American lots as the Andrade-Maximilian collection (Leipsic, 1869), the famous London sale of the same year, the E. G. Squier collection (1876), the Caleb Cushing sale (1879), and the Ramirez sale (London, 1880). During the most active period of his purchases (1868–1882), he necessarily bought and otherwise accumulated duplicates, and these he several times weeded from his shelves. Some of the duplicates he placed aside, and marked as such; others, I have found still upon the shelves. Again, it is highly probable that the University General Library already possesses, especially of modern Californiana, many of the more easily obtainable volumes in the Bancroft Library.

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The final checking is sure to reveal a considerable duplicate collection, among them some very great rarities. These will be of a character readily salable to libraries and other collectors of Americana. It is, in my judgment, a safe estimate to value them at $15,000—provided care is used, and time allowed, in disposing of them. Thrown into the auction room, or sold *en bloc* to dealers, they probably would not net more than half that sum. Perhaps I may be permitted, out of my own experience, to make the suggestion that the library could most profitably utilize these duplicates in effecting exchanges with other libraries, along the line of the Bancroft collection. Further, it will doubtless be found desirable, in the administration of the latter, to preserve therein many volumes duplicated in the General Library.

RECAPITULATION OF APPRAISAL.

I	Manuscripts (exclusive of dictated narratives, unappraised)	$80,000
II	General Printed Sources	25,000
III	Newspaper files, periodicals, transactions, and newspaper scrap-books	50,000
IV	Early imprints and rare books	20,000
V	Material in special fields of study (not local history)	20,000
VI	California material	50,000
VII	Other local history material	55,000
	Catalogues and indices	Unappraised
		$300,000
	Duplicates available for sale or exchange, and to be considered an offset	$15,000

If, as I am informed, Mr. Bancroft's estimate still remains at $250,000, the same as in 1887, I consider it a moderate one for the present day; in all probability, it is based upon his knowledge of what the material cost him. But Americana is advancing rapidly in value; prices obtainable in 1887 might in many cases be doubled in 1905. And if, as I am still further informed, Mr. Bancroft now

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offers to donate to the University the difference between his estimate of value ($250,000), and his asking price ($150,000), I am clearly of the opinion that the Bancroft Library is a bargain which, in the interest of Pacific Coast scholarship, should be taken advantage of.

SUGGESTIONS.

Assuming that the University will acquire the Bancroft Library, I trust that I may be permitted to close with a few suggestions relative to the future of the collection.

A great library of this highly specialized character should, I think, be separately administered, as is the President White Library at Cornell. It is going to take time, patience, and much skill to get this vast mass of material into good working order, available for the specialists who no doubt will soon wish to examine it. Library workers who are especially trained to the administration of maps, manuscripts, and other historical and economic sources, should if possible at once be placed in charge. Such a collection could not, in my judgment, attain its highest measure of usefulness in the hands of any not qualified in this department.

The Bancroft Library will at once attract to the University a body of graduate students in American and Spanish-American history and allied studies, who are to find here a practically unique collection of material of the highest order of excellence. Facilities for this sort of graduate work will be unsurpassed elsewhere in the United States. It would be wise, not only to keep the collection well abreast of the times, along its present lines, but, as means and opportunity permit, to extend its scope, looking towards the eventual accumulation at Berkeley of a great storehouse of material for all of Spanish America, thus making this the natural centre of that vast and fruitful field of study, which as yet remains practically untilled.

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The Bancroft Library may, under proper administration, at once enter the field of historical publication, with results highly creditable to the University. In its great manuscript stores are documents that should, as speedily as possible, be given to the world. In the mission and presidio archives alone, there is abundant material for a high grade of editorial work; these could be followed by the Vallejo, Larkin, and other collections of papers, bearing upon every phase of Pacific Coast life—Spanish, Russian, and American. The opportunity for scholarly work in this direction is, both in freshness and breadth, quite unexampled elsewhere in America.

When asked to undertake this appraisal, I at once invited the expert coöperation of Mr. Frederick J. Teggart, Librarian of the Mechanics' Institute, and a member of the University Extension staff. Mr. Teggart's critical knowledge of early Californiana has been of the greatest value; I have throughout had his constant daily assistance in the difficult and somewhat strenuous work of examining the collection. I have also had welcome assistance from Mr. D. E. Smith, likewise of the University Extension staff.

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THE WEINHOLD LIBRARY.[1]

HUGO K. SCHILLING.

"Claustrum sine armario
Est quasi castrum sine armamentario."

What was true of the monastic schools of the middle ages applies with redoubled force to our modern universities, in this age of "laboratory methods" even in the humanities: the library is the most essential part of an institution of learning. The recognition of this fact by the governing body of our University led to the adoption of that liberal policy which adds to our library upwards of twelve thousand volumes a year and which, together with special donations, has brought the total number of books on hand up to nearly one hundred and sixty thousand. There are in this country probably not more than three universities whose libraries are growing more rapidly than ours; we may well be gratified at the progress we are making in the accumulation of an equipment adequate to present-day university needs.

The acquisition of the Weinhold library marks a long stride in that direction. Until a few years ago the bulk of our collection of books in the line of Germanistics consisted in the purchases made with a fund of $2,100 raised

[1] Abstract of an address delivered at the University meeting held on September 22, 1905, in commemoration of the gift of the Weinhold Library by Mr. John D. Spreckels.

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in 1885 by Professor Putzker. The range of these purchases was determined by that of the higher German courses then given, which concerned themselves chiefly with eighteenth- and nineteenth-century literature. For a number of years thereafter the library appropriation remained quite small, until at last the regents decided to increase it to its present size; at about the same time Mr. E. A. Denicke donated, for the benefit of the German library, a fund of $1,000, to the income from which he has since annually added a sum sufficient to make a total of $100. Three years ago a special grant of $450 by the Library Committee for the purchase of books in Germanic philology assisted in removing a glaring deficiency; and our allotment from the general library fund as well as the income from the Denicke fund was year after year mainly devoted to the systematic filling of the numerous remaining gaps. The foundation was laid for the building up of a library uniformly representative of the entire domain of Germanistics.

But the rapid development of our graduate work created immediate needs in the presence of which the prospect of a gradual, steady growth of our library afforded but little satisfaction. Something had to be done at once to increase our working equipment. A public appeal was made in the California Staatszeitung; but it proved unavailing. Then a committee of prominent German-born citizens of San Francisco was intrusted with the opening of a subscription; but in view of other similar efforts then being made, the situation did not seem to favor early action.

Matters were in this unsatisfactory shape when the firm of J. Baer & Co. in Frankfort offered for sale the library of the late Professor Weinhold of the University of Berlin. Karl Weinhold was the last of those old-time scholars who cultivated the entire field of Germanistics. He had won distinction alike as an authority on the history of the High-German dialects, as a literary historian and an

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editor of mediæval and modern authors, and as a pioneer and leader in the study of German folk-lore and of Germanic antiquities. He had shown me on one occasion some of the numerous rare books which he had collected, and I had formed a general impression of the size and quality of his library. I knew that its acquisition by us would not only supply our immediate needs but would also give us a class of books that are, at this distance from the book markets, practically unobtainable in any other way: those which are out of print and which appear but rarely even in second-hand catalogues. The main objection that is apt to be urged against the purchase of an entire library is that there results in such cases a duplication of a considerable number of volumes already on hand. But we had reached a point where we needed a working library that should be permanently installed in our seminary room for the use of instructors and advanced students in work of a scholarly sort; and such a collection, withdrawn as it should be from general circulation, ought theoretically to consist of duplicates throughout. And the working outfit of a great scholar, accumulated in the course of a lifetime of investigation in every branch of his department of learning, is from its very nature ideally adapted to the purposes of a university seminary.

A practical consideration finally turned the scales: it is easier to obtain subscriptions for the purchase of an entire collection than for the enlargement of one already on hand; it is easier still to obtain the entire amount needed from some one man,—if you find the right man. I canvassed the situation with Mr. F. W. Dohrmann, one of the members of the committee referred to, and decided to ask Mr. John D. Spreckels to buy the Weinhold Library for us. Together we went on that, to me, momentous errand; Mr. Spreckels responded most generously, though with characteristic brevity: he merely suggested that we cable for the catalogue. The library was ours.

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Mr. Spreckels not only furnished the sum of seven thousand dollars for the purchase of the library, but also defrayed the entire cost of transportation. Mr. Dohrmann took upon himself the business details of the transaction and went to considerable trouble and expense to carry the matter to a successful issue. A delay of several months was caused by the binding of some eight hundred volumes, the expense incurred being covered by the sale of several sets of periodicals which we already possessed and did not care to duplicate. It took five months to bring the library round the Horn to its destination, and another month to set it up in our seminary room, to correct the provisional classification made by Baer & Co., and to verify and check off each number in the catalogue.[1] We had previously been furnished with lists of books catalogued but missing, and of books actually in the library, but not catalogued; the deficiency was happily more than offset, in extent and value, by the new accessions.

The cataloguing of the collection according to our system will take fully a year. A bookplate has been prepared which shall preserve the identity of the collection and perpetuate the memory of its donation. A catalogue of the books of particular value for original work and of such others as are not likely to be found elsewhere in this country will be published at an early date for the benefit of librarians and scholars in other universities.

The library consisted originally of not far from 9,000 books and pamphlets; by the sale above referred to the number was reduced to about 8,500, namely: 6,166 bound volumes, and 2,279 mostly unbound monographs. All departments of Germanistic study are impartially represented. The array of mediæval and modern authors, with the biographical and critical writings relating to them, is

[1] The library was formally opened on the morning of September 22, when Professor Schilling showed the treasures of the collection to the members and friends of the University who came to view them.

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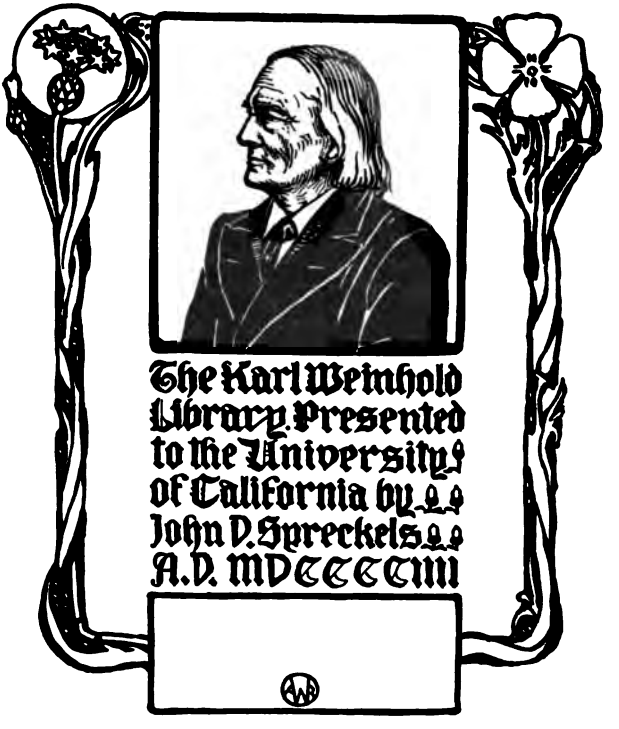
naturally the most imposing of all; but comparatively speaking, the collections in the generally much-neglected fields of Germanic antiquities and German folk-lore are deserving of special mention for their richness. The value of the library lies, however, not only in its size and range, but also, and particularly, in its quality. Weinhold was a bibliophile, with a taste for collecting rare books in his



line of work; and during his long career as a professor in various German and Austrian universities he had exceptional opportunities for gratifying his inclination. Accordingly we find in his library an uncommonly large number of precisely those books which are of most value in scholarly research, but to which the American investigator can

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usually obtain access in Europe only. Chief among these are the original editions of literary works, which are usually seen through the press by the authors themselves and afford, therefore, the only absolutely authoritative texts. Of such the Weinhold Library contains several hundreds, beginning with one of Luther's treatises and with the first complete edition of the poems of Hans Sachs (1558) and continuing down to the nineteenth century; Opitz, Wieland, the Storm-and-Stress writers, and the Romanticists are especially well represented. To this class belong also the "Musenalmanache," the literary almanacs in which much of the best poetry of Goethe and Schiller and their contemporaries made its first appearance; likewise the "Taschenbücher" and other collective publications; and of many of these, including practically all the principal ones, Weinhold secured complete sets. In other fields, too, we owe to him rarities too numerous to permit of the mention of more than a few samples. There are, for instance, in lexicology, the German dictionaries of Steinbach (1734), Frisch (1741), and Haltau (1758); in biography, the first account of the life of Geiler von Kaisersberg, by Beatus Rhenanus, 1510; in history, the chronicles of Aventinus (first German edition, 1566), and of Cureus (1607); in geography, the Weltbuch-Spiegel of Sebastian Franck, 1534; in folk-lore, the extremely rare anonymous volume of proverbs dated 1560, and Zinkgref's collection of anecdotes, 1693. Of value to scholars in various departments are the controversial writings from the time of the reformation, like Erasmus Alberus' Der Barfüsser Münche Eulenspiegel, with a preface by Luther, 1542; the various old hymn books with notes, *e.g.*, that of Praetorius, 1605; and a beautifully illuminated collection of secular songs from the year 1747. There are old folios in covers made from leaves of still older parchment manuscripts with painted initials, and little sextodecimo volumes from the eighteenth century, gilt-edged and bound in morocco; there

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are books with crude woodcuts and others illustrated with masterpieces of the engraver's art; and in many of them are autographs of noted scholars and poets who at one time owned them, and interesting marginal notes in a script that has long since become unfamiliar. It is a library that gladdens the heart of the scholar and cannot fail to fascinate and inspire the student. There is an education in merely seeing the classics of the past in their original garb; they appeal to the imagination, they bring to us something of the atmosphere of bygone ages.

Several other libraries of distinguished Germanists have been brought to this country, but none so large or so rich in bibliographical treasures as that of Weinhold. Nor is it likely in this age of growing specialization that another library as comprehensive as ours will ever be obtainable. The gift of this splendid collection makes the German department of our University one of the best equipped in the country. For this generous benefaction to ourselves and to future generations, no less than for the unquestioning readiness with which it was bestowed and the spirit of modesty which disclaims all credit therefor, we honor Mr. Spreckels and shall ever hold him in grateful remembrance.

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THE UPPER DIVISION.[1]

ALEXIS F. LANGE.

The revised scheme for undergraduate work in the Colleges of General Culture exhibits the following characteristic features:—

1. The framework of the traditional course of four years is retained.

2. A dividing line or barrier runs straight through the middle of the four-year course.

3. The student is given a maximum of choice—or *Lernfreiheit*—consistent with scope of effort and specialization of effort.

4. The student may, if he chooses, dovetail the upper end of his four-year course and the lower end of his professional course, *i.e,* .he may make such specializing as he is asked to do coincide with the direct preparation for his future career.

Now, these features of the present system do not necessarily imply new wine as well as new bottles. They do not necessarily imply new aims or modifications of old aims. They may be regarded merely as the result of a local attempt to carry out old aims more effectively. We need not see in them much more than mechanical improvements or the contrary. As a matter of fact, practical considerations

[1] A paper read at a meeting of the Philological Club, September 11, 1905.

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had not a little to do with the revision of which the present scheme is the outcome. One of the reasons for insisting more than ever on a four-year course was certainly to provide a check upon the strong tendency to crowd four years of study into three. One of the reasons for the dividing line in the middle was certainly to compel students to make good, matriculation, freshman, and sophomore deficiencies, within a reasonable period of grace. One of the reasons for consistently applying the principle of a minimum of compulsion and a maximum of choice was undoubtedly to reduce schedule difficulties. Lastly, one reason for incorporating the beginnings of professional training was simply the practical necessity of shortening, if possible, the time required for a professional degree.

But while practical efficiency and ease of operation were prominent factors in the task of revision, the revised scheme is supposed to embody more clearly than the original the progress of the last ten or fifteen years in educational theory. The attempt at such an embodiment rests on three postulates, each of which was more or less consciously present in the minds of those that undertook the revision:—

1. The American Nation must evolve its own national system of education, a system embracing all kinds and grades of education, a system expressing the character and spirit of the nation, as its other institutions do, and ministering, like these, to its needs and growth.

2. This evolution is identical with the further evolution of the school systems of the various states. Private institutions, to justify their existence, will always have to conform.

3. California is in a better position than any other State to take the lead in promoting this evolution. To lead becomes therefore the duty of this State. *Noblesse oblige.*

What, then, is the theory of which the present scheme is supposed to be the embodiment? You will pardon me if I approach the answer to this question, which concerns

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a part of the state school system, by starting with this system as a whole, with its possibilities in the direction of organic unity. The system, which, I think, we are outgrowing, but which is still representative, may be roughly compared with a pyramid. This pyramid consists of a broad base of eight grammar school grades. From it rise in succession a four-year block of high school, a four-year block of college, and an apex of from three to four years of graduate or professional courses. Each of these parts has had a history more or less independent of the other. All but the apex are American adaptations of English traditions, the high school being the most original of these. The apex we owe to Germany. The indwelling idea of the base is the concept or idea of elementary education; that of high school and college of secondary education,—the ideal or goal being different degrees of Liberal Culture;—the ideal or goal of the university is that of a profession, a profession directed either toward the pursuit of pure research or toward the application of principles,—training for research being presupposed—to the practical problems of life. Now, on examining this system from the viewpoint of educational thought, we can hardly fail to notice:—

(*a*) That the juncture of grammar and high school grades and the juncture of college and university are mechanical rather than organic, while in the case where there is an organic connection—in the case of high school and college—there is artificial separation;

(*b*) That in consequence of the fact that the high school has become wedged in between grammar school and college, while the German university has been superimposed on the college, there is a certain maladjustment to the pupil's or student's growth at two points:—

(1) The grammar schools encroach by at least two years on instruction and training that for all children of from twelve to fourteen years of age, whatever their later careers are likely to be, should be controlled by the outlook

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upon the world of man and of nature, by the aims and methods, that characterize secondary education.

(2) The older college with its traditional aims and methods encroaches by at least two years on instruction and training that for all concerned should be controlled during the first years of mature manhood and womanhood by the essential principle of the university type of instruction and training.

These considerations place before us a twofold problem. The first is how to bring about an organic relation between the high schools and the grammar schools, and a corresponding relation between the college and the university. The second is how to adjust each type of education to the stages of normal growth. This problem is, on its practical side, nearly identical with the problem of how to save time without educational loss.

How are these problems to be solved? Not by revolutionary but by evolutionary methods, by changes within the existing system and by such external modifications as these changes will gradually call for.

As far as the grammar school portion of the school system is concerned, there are as yet few visible signs of any external modifications. The trend of educational thought, however, is unmistakable. There is, in the first place, a growing recognition of the fact that the last two years of the grammar school are largely wasted; there is a growing conviction that the root of the trouble lies ultimately in the maladjustment I have mentioned; there are signs also of an early agreement among educators that the remedy consists in gradually transforming the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools into high school grades for all pupils, especially for those who will never go farther. The first step in this transformation will most likely be to place these grades more and more into the hands of college-bred teachers. This process is going on now. The next step, a more and more conscious adaptation of the

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point of view, aims and methods, of secondary education, the subjects taught remaining the same. The last step will be, I suspect, the introduction of certain subjects usually classed as secondary school subjects, such as elementary geometry and foreign languages. For those who are planning early to attend a high school, the last step may be the first, especially in the larger cities.

If now we turn back to our revised scheme for undergraduate study and training, we can easily see, I think, that it represents a modification of the traditional system exactly analogous to that proposed for the grammar schools. The Upper Division corresponds exactly to the two upper grammar grades of the future. Like these it represents the last stage of an accepted part of the educational system; like these it represents the first stage of the next higher part of the system; like these it has as its aim or as the principle determining instruction not that of the grades immediately preceding but that of the grades immediately following. It is culminal, if I may say so, and basal at the same time, culminal for those who do not go beyond the bachelor's degree; basal for those who look forward to one of the learned professions, including those of teaching, whether in universities or secondary schools.

But why this dovetailing? Is it a rational improvement? It is justified and even demanded by every theoretical consideration, not to mention very important ones of a more general practical nature. Let us examine the plan of an upper division like ours from the point of view of the old noble ideal of secondary education—the ideal of Liberal Culture. Its farthest goal is the greatest possible perfection of manhood and womanhood. The ultimate result hoped for and aimed at is a human personality which is 'living—that is, susceptible to impressions at the greatest possible number of points; which is free—that is, free from the domination of the senses and little things or facts; which is enlightened—that is, has actually taken pos-

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session of the best of present and past and thus can see life steadily and see it whole; which is rational—that is, sane in judgment; which is sympathetic withal—that is, able to say: nihil mundani a me alienum puto; which has aspirations and a character in accord with the laws of the universe.' The emphasis rests throughout on the human individual, on exercise for the development of individual power rather than on exercise for social service, on fitness rather than on fitness for something. The American college has not always escaped the danger of failing to recognize that becoming fit for something is a most important factor in becoming fit, that Liberal Culture is not a static condition, and that to share in the highest and best civilization of the present implies readiness and preparedness to take a definite active part in it.

Not to be prolix,—our national ideal of Liberal Culture, in order not to lag behind the modern conception of personality at its best and highest and strongest, in and through service, must necessarily emphasize intelligent initiative and rationally directed powers, particularly since the present college course demands several years which the old college did not claim. Now, as far as the purely intellectual side of training is concerned, the way to prepare the student for intelligent initiative and the rational direction of his powers is to shift the attention—as soon as this may be done without harm to the other prerequisites of culture—from results to be assimilated to the processes and methods of getting them. To learn how the organized common sense of the modern scholar works when applied to problems old and new, to learn something about the tools it works with, to begin to form by actual practice the mental business habits necessary for dealing adequately with the chaos of unknown things—this is an essential ingredient of college training. In other words, college training should include a strong element of university training, whatever the student's plans for the future may be.

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This demand is reënforced by the fact that modern scholarship is something dynamic. Without modern research and its methods, the material life and the thought of the world could not have been revolutionized as they have been during the last hundred years. It follows, that if an intelligent appreciation of the forces of civilization is characteristic of a liberal education—and it certainly is—then a college cannot because of its very ideal be satisfied with the conservation, transmission, elaboration, and assimilation of results.

A third reason for introducing university work lies in the fact hinted at several times, that normally the process of education in the strict sense is over by the age of twenty-one. Education becomes self-education. The further evolution of the student as a human being is his business, because he is no longer a plastic youth, no matter how undeveloped he may appear intellectually. What we can still do for him directly is to treat him and train him for a man's work, for service, for doing something definite in some cause other than himself. If we can't have the impersonal scientific interest from him, let us develop the bread-and-butter interest. Rather this than the notion that the sole purpose of a college faculty is to fill his precious self with sweetness and light. Feeding must go on, of course, in the sense of offering food; but we must stop cutting it up for him, stop inserting the spoon, stop watching painfully that he gets and swallows it at certain hours of the day. Informational courses are still in order, and inspirational still more so; in order are likewise opportunities for the promotion of routine skill in the scholarly arts,—here is the idea underlying the provision for free electives in the Upper Division,—but the greatest gain to personal culture will be obtained at those points where the natural wholesome desire on the part of a young man or woman twenty-one years and over, to do and learn something useful, is given an object, and is stripped of its grossly

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selfish element by training for the search after truth and its application, when found, to some problem of consequence to humanity.

The argument for the earlier beginning of university work as the first stage of professional training is perhaps too obvious to require statement. I shall content myself with referring to one aspect of it. After twenty it becomes increasingly difficult to acquire new habits. If thousands of our American professional men are incompetent because they began too early, they are matched by thousands equally incompetent because they began too late, because they were too old to master their subjects in a scientific spirit, by scientific methods. The result is at best routine, dependence on authority,—an artisan. I have had enough to do with various classes of students to be able to assert positively that it is easier to make an average Junior take the scientific point of view than it is to make an average college graduate do so.

I take it to be true, then, that as soon as we pass beyond the conventional view we must admit the necessity of training for research before the student leaves college, whether to go into business or a learned profession. You will notice, however, that I have been careful to say training for research, not engaging in research, in the sense of exploring the unknown. Original research is frequently thought of, talked of, bragged of, as if it denoted some esoteric rite, some peculiarly holy acts, performed by high priests behind a sacred curtain, which they alone are privileged to part and which the profane multitude dare not even approach. Only the elect may draw near; nor they, unless they have so-called general culture—which frequently turns out to be general ignorance—and a bachelor's degree. Until then, they, like their fellow-worshipers, must rely on the high priests for the revelations vouchsafed in the holy of holies; until then research is *taboo*. The American zealot, "made in Germany," is supported in this view by the de-

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votees of another cult, that of sweetness and light and mush. But that is another story. The first steps in research are for every reason of sound pedagogy a legitimate aim of grammar grades. They are a part of the training which gives the mind command of itself. But, to make research, or rather the training for it, or the training by its methods and processes, the determining principle of instruction,—this belongs to a time when the student's maturity warrants it.

Here we get back to the idea underlying the provision of a major study for Juniors and Seniors. The emphasis in this is supposed to be placed with steadily increasing force on principles, processes, methods. The amassing of the necessary facts is supposed to be turned over more and more to the student's initiative. Whether he has them is tested more and more by the things he can do in an independent scientific way. The motto: *I work for revenue only,* is supposed to fall more and more into innocuous desuetude—even in work which presumably will be the student's life work—as he becomes more and more interested in the discovery of the principles underlying the knowledge he has hitherto accepted largely on authority, interested in learning how knowledge has been obtained and how it must be obtained, interested in seeing where the frontier of the known lies, interested in equipping himself by actual attempts—whether in territory already explored by others or just beyond the border—for the extension of the frontier. He is supposed, if all goes well, to graduate with a little of the feeling that goes with the willing giving of a pledge to join the fraternity of one's choice; in this case a fraternity the members of which are animated by one and the same spirit of devotion to truth, by love of the fraternity on account of the truths on which it rests and the service it renders to civilization.

How far we have realized this idea in our practice I have no means of measuring. There are dangers to be

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avoided. One of them is treating Juniors as if they were candidates of three years' standing for the Ph.D. Analogous to this is the danger of passing at once to the practical technique of the practicing physician, lawyer, or school teacher. Another is the opposite one of teaching all classes of Upper or Lower Division alike,—in spite of ourselves. There are practical difficulties to be overcome. But, unless we believe we cannot perform the same kind of task which the grammar school teachers have before them, we can at least make steady progress. Of one thing I am sure now,—the response of the better students. One of the things we can do, if the reorganization of work rests on and embodies sound principles, is to make these our own and consciously set about to work them out in the class room. Another thing we can do is to cut down the scope of courses intended to constitute major work, and, on the other hand, to increase the number of Junior and Senior courses that belong under the head free elective. The scheme contemplates nine units per term of major work, plus whatever college courses—*i.e.*, free elective courses—a student chooses to take. A third problem is how to form sequences of the type: propaedeutic course, or courses, plus pro-seminar, plus seminar—the last open usually only to graduates, and to form these sequences according to what the scientific treatment of a subject involves, not according to some unessential principle. A fourth, closely akin to the third, is how to secure such coöperation in each department that the kinds of things to be done are properly provided for and not merely, let us say, so many authors and so many periods, all of which are now apt to be treated alike without differentiation of aims or methods, so that the student sees, of course, only differences of material and quantity, and more or less agreeable variations of idiosyncrasy in the instructor. Accordingly, it is not the kind or type of work he chooses, but the course; and he keeps on choosing thus until happily he has done his stunt of units, regardless of

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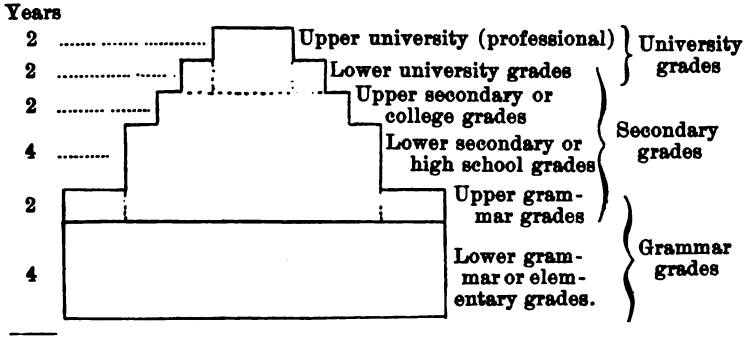
whether he has now a working chart for his subject or not, regardless of whether he has now a certain grasp of the body of principles that work in his subject calls for, and has learned how to apply them.

The following figure may serve to symbolize the reformed school system.



18 = total number of years provided for.
6
24 = normal age of student on completing preparation for a profession.

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TALKING *VERSUS* ACTING.[1]

RICHARD MANSFIELD.

I have heard of a gentleman who traveled this country with a lecture which he advertised in the daily papers under the title of "Milk," but the audiences which flocked to hear him were never able to discover any reference to milk in his discourse. Perhaps you will be of the opinion that my address, talk, or whatever you may be pleased to term it, will be much of the same quality, although I hope you will not find that what I have to say is entirely lacking in the milk of human kindness.

I hope, too, you will forgive me if I read my little talk to you this afternoon, but I am sure you will understand that I have been very busy with other matters, appertaining to my profession, and I cannot, therefore, dare to indulge myself in a memorized or extempore address. Also I would like to have it understood that what I have to say to you is not born of the conviction that I know more about the stage than any one else, but, right or wrong, it is the expression of my personal opinions and observation and that is, I presume, what you want from me.

It is a great pleasure and honor to be here to-day, and the fact that you are interested in the stage and the drama must, of course, be a source of congratulation to me personally and to all those who have at heart the welfare of

[1] An address delivered in the Harmon Gymnasium, November 23, under the auspices of the University Dramatic Association.

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the theatre in this country, and when we realize the depth of this interest shown by your great University and your ambitious Dramatic Association, it surely cannot be said that, at least so far as the University of California is concerned, the stage and drama are likely to die of neglect.

Nor indeed is the stage likely to die of neglect anywhere. But at this moment it cannot be denied that the ship of the stage is drifting somewhat hither and thither. Every breath of air and every current of public opinion impels it first in one direction and then in another. At one moment we may be said to be in the doldrums of the English society drama, or we are sluggishly rolling along in a heavy ground swell propelled by a passing cat's paw of revivals of old melodramas. Again we catch a very faint northerly breeze from Ibsen, or a southeaster from Maeterlinck and Hauptman. Sometimes we set our sails to woo that ever clearing breeze of Shakespeare, only to be forced out of our course by a sputter of rain, an Irish mist and half a squall from George Bernard Shaw, but the greater part of the time the ship of the stage is careering wildly under bare poles with a man lashed to the helm (and let us hope that like Ulysses he has cotton wool in his ears) before a hurricane of comic opera!

But whilst the press, which is the voice of the public, is finding fault with the condition of the stage, it is perhaps forgotten that the public itself is largely responsible for this condition. When you need a fine president, you elect one, and if you elect a bad one, it would be your fault or the fault of a faulty machine. If you were by any chance to submit to graft in every direction, bad municipal government, to insufficient regulations, bad roads, congested traffic, highway robbery and wholesale vice, who would be to blame, if you are content to sit with your hands in your laps and yell murder? There has, ever since I have had the honor and privilege of appearing before American audiences, been this same outcry against the American stage,

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and there has always been sufficient interest at work to make this outcry, but never sufficient interest to do anything about it, and here is a case of talk versus acting. Yet here are some ninety millions of people possessed of the greatest wealth of any nation in the world. It is just as easy to have a national theatre in this country as it is in France or Germany. It is now some seven years since I attended a very delightful function in the city of Chicago, and being called upon to make some remarks and being totally unprepared, it occurred to me to suggest the establishment of a national theatre. This suggestion was widely discussed at that time by the press and immediately after forgotten. Since then various eminent persons have stolen my thunder; but neither my thunder nor their echo of it has cleared the air, and to-day the stage of this country—as indeed of England—is in the same unsatisfactory condition. And so we talk and don't act.

We need a recognized stage and a recognized school. America has become too great and its influence abroad too large for us to afford to have recourse to that ancient and easy method of criticism which decries the American and extols the foreign. That is one of those last remnants of colonialism and provincialism which must depart forever.

Neither is it of the slightest benefit to the stage or to the drama, or to the individual actor, for us to be reminded upon every possible and impossible occasion that Mr. Garrick is dead. The chances are that if Mr. Garrick were to return to-day he would have a hard field to plow, *i.e.*, if Mr. Garrick were to appear incognito as Mr. Brabazon Montmorency, for instance, we should see Mr. Garrick, alias Mr. Brabazon Montmorency, reading about himself in the morning papers something like this: "Mr. Brabazon Montmorency last night gave himself all the airs of a Garrick, but where, oh! where was the spirit of the departed Garrick?" When Mr. Garrick made his first appearance as a gentleman who had never acted before on any stage,

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he was advertised to play the life and death of King Richard III between the first and second parts of a concert in the vicinity of London, and such was his instantaneous success that, according to his own confession, he never played to a poor house during his entire career. Of course we quite understand that Mr. Garrick spoke after the same manner that truthful managers speak to-day. We can imagine the élite of San Francisco traveling to Oakland to see Mr. DuPuyster play King Lear in a soirée musicale, and we can imagine what the much tried and overworked dramatic critic would have to say about it, if he said anything. But the matter does not end here. There were at that time only two recognized theatres in London. To-day in all capital cities their number is legion. Realize that London then was not as large as Cleveland, and how easy it was for an actor of any ability—or a poet—or a painter, to raise himself head and shoulders above his fellows; and yet more: Garrick was surrounded by a coterie of delightful spirits, amongst which were Samuel Johnson and Goldsmith and Richard Brinsley Sheridan and a dozen others known to you all. The Prince Regent was there every night with a galaxy of wit and beauty and he was glad to give Mr. Garrick his arm or to be tooled down to Twickenham or Richmond on the box seat of Mr. Garrick's coach. To-day the actor may be said, as far as artistic atmosphere and a literary coterie may be concerned, to eat his heart out in solitude.

Where and from whom can he draw inspiration? In the days of Garrick those men who wrote plays came with bended knee and bated breath and whispering humbleness to beg Mr. Garrick to accept their work. To-day! We look around a vast plain of emptiness and if upon the horizon we descry the nebulous figure of a nascent dramatic author pressing to his puling lips a sucking bottle of dramatic buttermilk, we crawl to his feet and implore him to bestow upon us, regardless of cost, one drop of the precious fluid.

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Can the actor to-day, remaining in one city, produce with any hopes of success one play after the other? How is he to do it without a theatre and a fund of money? New and original plays he certainly cannot find in the English language! They are not being written as far as I am aware. Perhaps they are and it has not been my privilege to see them. Then must he translate the works of Ibsen or Hauptman or Maeterlinck and other foreigners? Can he depend upon the works of the dead masters—Shakespeare and Goldsmith and Sheridan or Wycherly or Browning—upon Schiller or Goethe or Lessing, Racine or Corneille? Let me tell you that the standard to-day is so much higher, the demand of the public so much greater than in the days of Garrick or Edmund Kean, that a hasty or superficial representation of any one of these men's masterpieces would not be endured. Sir Henry Irving has, alas, just passed away and the wreath of everlasting fame has been placed upon his tomb in Westminster Abbey by a grateful King and Queen and people, but he was not able to produce more than one, or at the outside two, plays in his theatre each season, and even that effort bankrupted him and he died, to all intents and purposes, penniless! The costly productions inaugurated by Charles Kean, Kemble and Macready, and faithfully followed and improved upon by Irving and Calvert and others, have spoiled the public for anything but the costliest *mise en scène,* and it is not enough for the actor to study his role, but he must be prepared to devise and superintend the construction of a mass of scenery and costumes, of effects of lighting, of the movements of a mob of figurants, and he must have the practical and financial mind to meet the dreadful question of expense! And do you then imagine—or rather do you demand—that the actor alone of all struggling beings to-day, should be the one to ignore entirely financial reward? Does the clergyman preach the word of God without any earthly remuneration, and the solicitor plead the honorable cause of his

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client for the love of Justice alone? Where is this art of production, these elaborate productions to end?

It is very evident that any man, be he an actor or no actor, can with money and with good taste, make what is technically termed a production. There is, as an absolute matter of fact, no particular credit to be attached to the making of a production. The real work of the stage—of the actor—does not lie there. It is easy for us to busy ourselves, to pass pleasantly our time designing lovely scenes, charming costumes and all the paraphernalia and pomp of mimic grandeur, whether of landscape or of architecture, the panoply of war, or the luxury of royal courts. That is fun; pleasure and amusement. That again comes under the head of talking versus acting. No, the real work of the stage lies in the creation of a character. A great character will live forever, when paint and canvas and silks and satins and gold foil and tinsel shall have gone the way of all rags.

But the long, lone hours with our heads in our hands, the toil, the patient study, the rough carving of the outlines, the dainty, delicate finishing touches, the growing into the soul of the being we delineate, the picture of his outward semblance, his voice, his gait, his speech, all amount to a labor of such stress and strain, of such loving anxiety and care, that they can be compared only in my mind to a mother's pains. And when the child is born it must grow in a few hours to completion and be exhibited and coldly criticized. How often, how often have those long months of infinite toil been in vain! How often has the actor led the child of his imagination to the footlights, only to realize that he has brought into the world a weakling or a deformity which may not live! And how often he has sat through the long night brooding over the corpse of this dear figment of his fancy! It has become lately customary with many actor managers to avoid these pangs of childbirth. They have determinedly declined the re-

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sponsibility they owe to the poet and the public, and have instead dazzled the eye with a succession of such splendid pictures that the beholder forgot in a surfeit of the sight the feast that should have fed the soul. This is what I am pleased to term talk versus acting. The representative actors in London are much inclined in this direction.

I remember coming across an article written by Hans Christian Anderson in the old Cornhill Magazine about a production of "The Tempest" at Her Majesty's Theatre. I was lost in wonder and amazement as I perused page after page of glowing description of this marvelous and fairy-like investiture of Shakespeare's play. But as I read there rose in my nostrils from the old-time journal the dust and dry rot of a dead endeavor, and the book fell from my hand as I came upon this final line: "But I would rather see Shakespeare intelligibly interpreted in an empty barn." In these days there are loads and loads of money, but there are few actors! And these loads of money will make productions, but they won't make actors! I recommend to the students of the stage of the future the simplest background artistically sketched in merely to suggest sufficiently and clearly whatever scene the author indicates.

There is much at the present time which militates against the education of the actor. It has become largely the custom for managers of theatrical companies to rely upon one play each season, or for as long a period as any play will hold the public favor. This means a few weeks of rehearsal and idleness the rest of the time. A society play, for instance, is purchased in London, a cast is engaged in New York in which each individual player peculiarly suits the character he or she has to interpret. Repetitions take place under the eye of the astute manager, the play is launched, and there is nothing more to be done by the actors. The business manager and especially the press agent do the rest. Most of these plays that come to us from London are disquisitions on social topics, social

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problems, expositions of the author's peculiar views on matrimony, or pugilism, or the relations of the sexes, or a searchlight into a dark and reeking closet which nobody wants to examine. In these plays, and plays of this class, it is only necessary for the interpreter to speak the words, but there is no call for great acting. The actor is simply floating for a while upon the tide of the author's temporary notoriety. The actor should sternly put away the temptation which may come to him under the guise of financial success to produce plays which pander to debased tastes, for though, for a brief spell, he may hold the attention of the public, he will win neither respect nor lasting reward, and he will have openly degraded an art which should be devoted only to the beautiful.

Recently it has become a habit with women of the stage to rely for effect upon exhibitions of hysteria. There is nothing easier for a woman to do all the world over, once she has made up her mind to do it, than to become hysterical. I have heard that a great many ladies give fine exhibitions of this art in the sanctity of their homes. All you have to do is to make up your mind to tear every shred of self-restraint to pieces, pull up the anchor and let go the hawser and pouf! There you are! Bumping the floor, tearing your hair, playing a ragtime with your heels and shrieking at the top of your voice. But great griefs are not expressed in this way. The gallery may applaud, but the judicious will grieve.

> "She sat like Patience on a monument
> Smiling at grief."

Shakespeare suggests hysteria in comedy only as in "The Taming of the Shrew" for instance, but Ophelia and Desdemona and Lady Macbeth and Perdita indulge in no such ebullition.

And to refer for a moment to the use of unpleasant subjects upon the stage, we are all aware, we cannot but be aware, of the existence in this world of nauseous and

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distressing evils. This world was beautiful until man made it ugly, and it still remains beautiful to those who will seek its beauties. We may at once confess that there are sewers and some bad sewers. That is the truth. But because it is the truth, there is no need to exhibit them upon the stage. There are other means of eradicating such evils. The stage is neither a police court nor a hospital. Both are unfortunately necessary to mankind, but they are not necessary upon the stage. The loftiest aim of the pulpit and the stage is to teach us to be better and consequently happier, but neither a church congregation nor a theatre audience is to be improved by, or should be asked to endure, the distressing details of brutal, vulgar and disgusting vice. The stage is for the young especially, and we may indulge them in fairy tales and history and poetry; in tales of love and romance and achievement and of heroism and an occasional ghost story with a moral—like "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde"—but we may not distort their fancy or endanger their moral lives by an exhibition of a rare and exceptional phase of social debasement. Ruskin's advice to young artists may well be kept in mind—it is, as I remember it, to this effect: "When you are to paint a tree, find a beautiful tree and a tree that every one knows to be a tree. It may be the truth that there is a hideous and deformed and extraordinary freak of a tree to be found in the forest, but that tree is not the tree for you to copy."

And the student may well ask, "What are we to copy and whom are we to copy?" Don't copy any one; don't copy *any* individual actor or his methods. The methods of one actor—the means by which he arrives—cannot always be successfully employed by another. The methods and personality of one actor are no more becoming or suitable or adapted to another than certain gowns worn by women of fashion, simply because these gowns *are* the fashion. In the art of acting, like the art of painting, we must study life—copy life! You will have before you the work of

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great masters, and you will learn very much from them—quite as much what to avoid as what to follow. No painting is perfect and no acting is perfect. No actor ever played a part to absolute perfection. It is just as impossible for an actor to completely simulate nature upon the stage as it is impossible for the painter to portray on canvas the waves of the ocean, the raging storm clouds or the horrors of conflagration.

The nearer the artist gets to nature, the greater he is. We may admire Rubens and Rembrandt and Van Dyke and Gainsborough and Turner, but who will dare to say that any one of their pictures is faultless? We shall learn much from them all, but quite as much what to avoid as what to emulate. But when you discover their faults, do not forget their virtues. Look and realize what it means to be able to do so much. And the actor's art is even more difficult! For its execution must be immediate and spontaneous. The word is delivered, the action is done and the picture is painted! Can I pause and say: "Ladies and gentlemen, that is not the way I wanted to do this, or to say that; if you will allow me to try again, I think I can improve upon it?"

The most severe critic can never tell me more or scold me more than I scold myself. I have never left the stage satisfied with myself. And I am convinced that every artist feels as I do about his work. It is the undoubted duty of the critic to criticize, and that means to blame as well as to praise, and it must be confessed that, taking all things into consideration, the critics of this country are actuated by honesty of purpose and kindliness of spirit and very often their work is in addition of marked literary value. Occasionally we will still meet the man who is anxious to impress his fellow citizens with the fact that he has been abroad and tinctures all his views of plays and actors with references to Herr Dinkelspigel or Frau Mitterwoorzer, or who, having spent a few hours in Paris, is forced

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to drag in by the hair Monsieur Popin or Mademoiselle Fifine. But as a matter of fact, is not the interpretation of tragedy and comedy by the American stage superior to the German and French?—for the whole endeavor in this country has been toward a closer adherence to nature. In France and in Germany the ancient method of declamation still prevails, and the great speeches of Goethe and Schiller and Racine and Corneille are to all intents and purposes intoned. No doubt this sounds very fine in German and French, but how would you like it now in English? The old-time actor had peculiar and primitive views as to elocution and its uses. I remember a certain old friend of mine who, when he recited the opening speech in *Richard III* and arrived at the line "In the deep bosom of the ocean buried," suggested the deep bosom of the ocean by sending his voice down into his boots. Yet these were fine actors to whom certain young gentlemen, who never saw them, constantly refer. The methods of the stage have completely changed and with them the tastes of the people. The probability is that some of the old actors of only a few years ago would excite much merriment in their delineation of tragedy. A very great tragedian of a past generation was wont in the tent scene in *Richard III* to hold a piece of soap in his mouth so that, after the appearance of the ghosts, the lather and froth might dribble down his chin! and he employed, moreover, a trick sword, which rattled hideously and, what with his foam-flecked face, his rolling eyes, his inarticulate groans and his rattling blade, the small boy in the gallery was scared into a frenzy of vociferous delight!

Yet, whilst we have discarded these somewhat crude methods, we have perhaps allowed ourselves to wander too far in the other direction, and the critics are quite justified in demanding in many cases greater virility and force. The simulation of suppressed power is very useful and very advisable, but *when the firebell rings* the horses have got to come out and rattle and race down the street and

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rouse the town! Of immense value to the world is the stage! In the words of Schiller, "Wohlthätig ist des Feuers Macht, Wenn sie der Mensch bezähmt, bewacht!" This may be said of the stage. Watched and guarded, its influence is only for good and for the happiness and benefit of the people.

What could not be done for the people of this land were we to have a great and recognized theatre! Consider our speech and our manner of speech! Consider our voices and the production of our voices! Consider the pronunciation of words and the curious use of vowels! Let us say we have an established theatre to which you come not only for your pleasure, but for your education. Of what immense advantage this would be if back of its presiding officer there stood a board of literary directors, composed of such men as William Winter, Howells, and Edward Everett Hale and Aldrich and others equally fine, and the Presidents of this and other great universities. These men might well decide how the American language should be spoken in the great American theatre, and we should then have an authority in this country at last for the pronunciation of certain words. It would finally be decided whether to say fancy or fahncy—dance or dahnce—advertisement or advertysement and many other words; whether to call the object of our admiration "real elegant"—whether we should say "we admire" to do this or that, and whether we should say "I guess" instead of "I think." And the voice! The education of the American speaking voice is, I am sure you will agree, of immense importance. It is difficult to love a woman or to continue to endure a woman who shrieks at you! A high-pitched, nasal, stringy voice is not calculated to charm, and this established theatre of which we dream should teach men and women how to talk, and how splendid it would be for future generations if it became characteristic of American men and women to speak in soft and beautifully modulated tones. What would

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be more in harmony with this entrancing California, our modern Greece?

These men of whom I have spoken could meet once a year in the great greenroom of this theatre of my imagination and decide upon the works to be produced, the great classics, the tragedies and comedies, and the living authors should be invited and encouraged. Here again we would have at last what we so badly need, an encouragement for men and women to write poetry for the stage! As I have already told you, nothing by way of the beautiful seems to be written for us to-day, but perhaps the acknowledgment and the hall-mark of a great theatre might prove an incentive.

The training of the actor! To-day there is practically none. Actors and actresses are not to be taught by patting them on the shoulders and saying "Fine! Splendid!" It is a hard, hard school on the contrary, of unmerciful criticism. And he is a poor master who seeks cheap popularity amongst his associates by glossing over and praising what he knows to be condemnable. No good result is to be obtained by this method, but it is this method which has caused a great many actors to be beloved; and the public to be very much distressed.

As for the practical side of an established theatre, I am absolutely convinced that the national theatre could be established in this country on a practical and paying basis; and not only on a paying basis, but upon a profitable basis. It would, however, necessitate the investment of a large amount of capital. In short, the prime cost would be large, but if the public generally is interested, there is no reason why an able financier could not float a company for this purpose. But under no circumstances must or can a national theatre, in the proper use of the term, be made an object of personal or commercial profit. Nor can it be a scheme devised by a few individuals for the exploitation of a social or literary fad. The national

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theatre must be given by the people to the people and be governed by the people. The members of the national theatre should be elected by the Board of Directors and should be chosen from the American and British stage alike, or from any country where English is the language of its people. Every inducement should be offered to secure the services of the best actors; by actors, I mean actors of both sexes; and those who have served for a certain number of years should be entitled to a pension upon retirement.

It is not necessary to bother you with further details, and I only mention this to impress you with the fact that the national theatre is a practical possibility. From my personal experience, I am convinced that serious effort upon the American stage meets with a hearty endorsement.

We are supposed to be a laughter-loving and, as far as our amusement is concerned, a frivolous people, and many business men point out to me that when they have finished their day's work they are too tired to consider anything but burlesque or comic opera, or light farce; but I don't think they have ever stopped to consider the fact that a shallow entertainment does not help to take them out of their business thoughts into the depths of other ideas. The fine swimmer strikes out beyond the breakers and revels in the deep, calm sea beyond. The contemplation of a great play, of great tragedy or of any drama of surpassing interest must rest the mind, for it changes the trend of a man's thoughts and carries him away from himself and his troubles. The French have the reputation too of being a frivolous and laughter-loving nation, but I have never attended a performance at the Comedie Française that was not crowded, and on every occasion the representation has been of some long, serious poetical or historical play, as for instance "Henri Trois et sa Cour."

And now you know why I have called my little address "Talking versus Acting." I have talked and no one is

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likely to act. One parting word: In nothing that I have said is there one particle of venom or rancour, and I must not be construed into criticizing or belittling in any way the work of the many eminent men and women who hold the boards to-day and who so often delight you. Please remember that we have here no King or Queen or Kaiser to confer honors upon the deserving artists or the great author. Remember that to the writer and the artist your praise and appreciation is his sunlight, and that the only honored place in this land in which he may hope to dwell after he is dead is in your hearts.

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THE SUMMER SESSION OF 1905.

ERNEST CARROLL MOORE.[1]

Seventy-eight different courses of instruction were given at the University of California during the Summer Session of 1905 by a teaching force of seventy-six instructors, readers, and laboratory assistants. This faculty included such distinguished visitors as Ludwig Boltzmann, Professor of Physics, the University of Vienna; James Mark Baldwin, Professor of Philosophy, Johns Hopkins University; Anna Botsford Comstock, Lecturer in Nature Study, Cornell University; William Gardner Hale, Professor and Head of the Department of Latin, University of Chicago; Calvin Noyes Kendall, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis; Hammond Lamont, Managing Editor of the New York *Evening Post;* Eliakim Hastings Moore, Professor and Head of the Department of Mathematics, University of Chicago; Thomas Day Seymour, Hillhouse Professor of the Greek Language and Literature, Yale University; Albert Augustus Stanley, Professor of Music, University of Michigan; and Reuben Gold Thwaites, Secretary and Superintendent of the Wisconsin Historical Society and Lecturer on American History, University of Wisconsin.

There were 795 students in attendance at Berkeley during the Summer Session of 1905, of whom 339 were men and 456 women, while the attendance of 1904 was 913,

[1] Dean of the Summer Session of 1905.

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and of 1903 was 859. This falling off in attendance seems to have been due to four principal causes: the Portland Fair, the competition of the Summer Normal School at San Jose, our own systematic discouraging of undergraduate students from attending, and less attention, perhaps, on the part of the press of the State than heretofore. The Lewis and Clark Exposition attracted vast numbers of Californians, among them perhaps as many as two hundred teachers and students who otherwise would have spent a part of their vacation in study at Berkeley. Superintendents of city schools reported to us before the opening of the session that their teachers were not planning to attend the Summer Session this year, but were arranging to go to Portland instead.

The competition of the Summer School at San Jose contributed to lessen our numbers, not so much through the superior attractiveness of its work, for we offered similar courses in several lines, as through the superiority of its method of making its existence known.

As the Summer Session of the University of California is organized solely for the aid it may render in the general education of the people, it is desirable that its benefits should be brought to as large a number of students as possible. The summer schools of other universities are widely advertised and every effort is made to increase the size of their classes. Our Summer Session has never employed this method. It has become one of the largest and certainly one of the best in the land, without the expenditure of a dollar for paid advertising. But complaint has been made by students that its existence is not sufficiently known; that until one has already been in Berkeley or come in touch with some one who has, and so learned our method of distributing announcements, it is practically impossible for him to get information of its courses and avail himself of its work. When one considers the marked advantages in the way of climate, instruction, and the merely

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nominal cost of residence here, which the Summer Session at Berkeley offers, and at the same time remembers how large a number of men and women on the Pacific Coast are or should be interested to assemble themselves here each year, he cannot but conclude that the next step in increasing our usefulness is to make our school more widely known. The character of the instruction which is offered, the commodiousness of the University buildings and the size and personnel of our teaching staff should attract 3,000 students each summer, 2,000 from California and 1,000 more from the neighboring Pacific States, instead of the eight or nine hundred who come regularly now.

The summer session of a university is apt to become in part a coaching school where regular students who have fallen behind may make up their hours. This tendency has been systematically discouraged from the first. Recently rather more careful efforts have been made to point out to such students that they are not the pride and mainstay of our company, with the result that fewer of them put in an appearance this year than formerly. New regulations at Stanford concerning credit for work done here contributed to this result. While undergraduates who are making good past failures are not desirable students, undergraduates from the technical colleges who take this opportunity to work in the liberal arts, in fact, all students who come to supplement their regular work by further study, rather than to obtain additional credits, are to be numbered with the best members of the school.

Twenty-three States were represented at Berkeley during the term which has just closed. Students came from as far east as New York. Most of the States west of the Mississippi were represented, and eighty students in all came from outside of California. Of those coming from our own State, Alameda County furnished the largest number, 310; San Francisco came next with 102, and Los Angeles next with 68. Twelve counties sent no students at all.

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They were Alpine, Del Norte, Glenn, Lassen, Mariposa, Mono, Monterey, Placer, Plumas, San Benito, Sutter, and Trinity.

Seventy-two students were graduates of the University of California, and 149 were graduates of other colleges. Seventy-two registered as graduates from normal schools. The total number of college students enrolled was 253, while the total number of teachers was 304. It is not surprising that this student body was referred to by instructors who have been connected with the University long enough to venture an opinion, as the best which they had seen assembled on the Campus. Two hundred and twenty-one, or more than a fourth of them, were post-graduate students.

In general the character of the courses which were offered during the session of 1905 did not differ greatly from that of previous sessions. Experience has shown that the subjects in which instruction is most desired are History, Education, Literature, Philosophy, Languages, Mathematics, and Elementary Science. All these departments were, as formerly, fully represented. It is increasingly evident that the University cannot serve the commonwealth better than by doing all in its power to promote the efficiency of the teachers and the quality of the instruction in the elementary and secondary schools of the State. The bulk of our students are teachers—the best teachers in the public schools. They come seeking to perfect themselves in the work which they are doing. More of them might come, and it is the first duty of the management of this school to persuade more of them to come in future, but no better class of students than they constitute could be assembled. With a view to serving them more directly more courses were offered in Education than hitherto. Instruction was given in the teaching of practically every subject of the elementary and secondary courses of study. These courses were well attended and much satisfaction

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was expressed with this feature of the organization of our work. Similar courses designed for teachers offering instruction primarily in subject matter and secondarily in methods of teaching that subject matter, should, we think, form a regular part of the work of the Summer Session. One quite new feature of the session of 1905 was the Observation School conducted under the direction of Professor F. E. Farrington. It offered many of the advantages of a laboratory and was of very great service to both teachers and students of education. It should become a regular feature of our work.

Courses in Law were offered this year for the first time. It was felt that many young men engaged in other lines of work, or studying law alone or in an office, would avail themselves of this opportunity to study under direction. In this conjecture we were not disappointed. The classes were well attended and the results which were accomplished amply justify the repetition of these courses.

A remarkable thing about the session which has just closed was the way in which students distributed themselves to the different classes. Practically all the courses which were offered were well attended. Another matter which deserves mention was the faithful attendance of auditors upon the courses which they chose to visit, until the very end of the term.

We were especially fortunate in securing the services of a number of distinguished visitors to the Coast to lecture before the students of the University. Among them were Rabbi Emil Hirsch of Chicago, who addressed a University meeting upon the subject, "Educational Ideas and Ideals." President Robert S. Woodward of the Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C., and Dean Laura D. Gill of Barnard College, also addressed a University meeting, President Woodward taking for his subject "The Work of the Carnegie Institution," and Dean Gill speaking upon "The Work of Barnard College." The final University

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meeting of the session was addressed by Professor Graham Taylor, Warden of Chicago Commons, and President Henry Churchill King of Oberlin College.

There is a demand for more work in English Literature than was offered this year. Courses in Composition are very well attended and should be given each year, but a popular course in literature requiring a large amount of reading in the best authors would meet the wants of many students. Instruction in Civics should be added to our programme. Reading courses in Latin, Greek, French, and German authors are more needed than special courses in the teaching of these subjects, though teaching courses should sometimes be given. The opposite is true in Physics, Chemistry, and Mathematics. Teaching courses should be given in these subjects each year. Courses designed particularly for teachers in commercial high schools should be added next year. The courses designed for teachers in the elementary schools should receive more attention, as they have completely justified their presence in our programme of studies. Composite courses should not be given if courses by a single instructor can be arranged.

In conclusion let me repeat that the students of our Summer Session are a very exceptional body of men and women. They come with very definite intellectual interests. They come for work, and though the term is short they are able to accomplish results which are quite worth while. The Summer Session has proven its value. Through it the University is serving the State as effectively as it can in any other way.

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UNIVERSITY REGISTRATION, NOVEMBER 1, 1905.

JAMES SUTTON.

The table following shows the registration of students in the University on November 1, 1905; it shows also the corresponding registration for four years preceding 1905.

	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905
Graduate Students	168	172	207	194	271
Undergraduate Students (Letters, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences, Commerce, Architecture, Agriculture, Mechanics, Mining, Civil Engineering, Chemistry)	2099	2315	2273	2331	2362
Totals in the Colleges at Berkeley	2267	2487	2480	2525	2633
Colleges of Law, Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Art	665	564	600	563	471
Totals, all Colleges	2932	3051	3080	3088	3104
Summer Session	799	830	868	913	795

Between November 1 and Commencement Day of each academic year there are always two hundred or more additional registrations. On this account a careful analysis of the registration statistics is usually postponed until the figures for the year are complete. So far as the statistics for November 1 of the five years in question have been analyzed, the following results appear:

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1. In spite of some decline in the enrollment in certain of the colleges at Berkeley, the number of students to-day in the colleges at Berkeley is larger than in any previous fall session in the history of the University; also, in spite of a great decline in the number of students in the professional schools in San Francisco, the total number of students in the University as a whole is greater than ever before.

2. On November 1, 1904, there were 789 undergraduates in the Colleges of Mechanics, Mining, Civil Engineering, and Chemistry; this year there were 764. This loss may be due to the fact that this year, for the first time, the University requires for matriculation in these colleges either French or German, and Geometrical Drawing; also, that the curriculum of the College of Chemistry has been rearranged and (from the point of view of the average undergraduate) "stiffened."

3. Turning now to the professional colleges, in San Francisco, we find in every one of them a smaller registration this year than four years ago. The College of Pharmacy has suffered the smallest loss; it had eighty-five in 1901 and has eighty-one now. Both Medicine and Dentistry have lost practically 50 per cent. of their enrollment as reported in 1901. This loss is not difficult to understand in the case of the College of Medicine; here there has been a steady increase in the entrance requirements, until now the first year's work in Medicine presupposes and requires at least two years of college work equivalent to the two years of the Pre-medical Course in the College of Natural Sciences. Last year there were thirty-three freshmen in Medicine; this year there are nine.

4. The great increase in the number of graduate students is due to the University regulation which requires candidates for teacher's recommendations to spend at least half a year at the University in the graduate status. Indirectly, this change may bring about some increase in the number of candidates for higher degrees.

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5. The new course in Architecture has an enrollment of twelve undergraduates. There are in addition a number of undergraduates in other courses and colleges who are taking some of their electives in Architecture.

6. The College of Agriculture, like the other colleges of applied sciences, has recently raised both its admission and its graduation requirements, but, unlike the other colleges, the number of its undergraduates has increased instead of diminished: eighty-nine one year ago, one hundred and eleven to-day.

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UNIVERSITY RECORD.

ALBERT H. ALLEN.

PURCHASE OF THE BANCROFT LIBRARY.

The Bancroft Library has been purchased by the University of California. The purchase price was $250,000, and of this amount Mr. H. H. Bancroft, the collector of the Library, donated $100,000, leaving $150,000 to be paid by the University. This sum will be paid in three annual installments, and the expense will be charged by the Regents to the Permanent Improvement fund for a series of five or six years.

Dr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, Superintendent of the Wisconsin State Historical Library, and a distinguished expert in the field of American historical bibliography, was recently invited to California by the Regents of the University to examine the Bancroft Library. His report, which is given in full in this number of the CHRONICLE, shows that the collection is well worth $300,000, and this without attempting to determine the value of some important portions of the collection. Of manuscripts alone the Bancroft Library has a collection that is in fact priceless in the opinion of Dr. Thwaites, although he gives $80,000 as a most conservative estimate of what the Library of Congress would offer for this portion of the Library alone.

With the Library the University will secure as a very useful adjunct the many labor-saving devices used by Mr. Bancroft in the classification of his material. These include

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card catalogues, indices, lists and notes, and will be of great value to the University in the work of cataloguing and preparing the Library for the use of scholars.

The University took possession of the Bancroft Library November 25, Mr. Bancroft, the creator of this remarkable collection, signing on that day the papers which transferred it to the University. For the present, Mr. Frederick Taggart, a member of the University Extension staff of the University and Librarian of the Mechanics Institute in San Francisco, has been designated by President Wheeler as custodian of the Bancroft Library. The University authorities are anxious at the earliest possible moment to make available for the use of scholars the treasures of this collection, and within the next few months will install it in one of the buildings at Berkeley, there to await the completion of the new Doe Library building, which will probably be its final home.

In connection with the acquisition of this invaluable library the following statement of President Wheeler is of interest:

"The purchase of the Bancroft Library marks a great day in the history of the University. It means the increase of the University Library at one stroke by one-third its present extent in number of volumes: it means the inevitable establishment at Berkeley of the center for future research in the history of Western America; it means the creation of a school of historical study at the University of California; it means the emergence of the real University of study and research out of the midst of the Colleges of elementary teaching and training; for the State of California it means rescue from the threatened danger of having the fundamental and unreplaceable documents of its earliest history carried as spoils outside its boundaries. Had it not been for the acquisition of the Library for the State at this time, it would have certainly passed very speedily to the Library of Congress or one of the two or

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three great eastern libraries which are eagerly collecting the materials containing sources of all early American history. If this had been done no amount of collectors' zeal or money could have made good the loss.

"The Library is a mine in which generations of explorers will work. Its manuscript material includes almost the entire range of available documents for the history of early exploration and the establishment of the government and social life of the Pacific Coast. Manuscripts such as those which in large mass form the nucleus of the collection are things which exist or are lost once for all. The University with its limited resources could ill afford to expend the money necessary for acquiring the collection, but as representing California it could also ill afford to take the responsibility of letting it go. On the judgment of the best expert in the country the price of $250,000 at which the library has always been held by its owner proved to be a very moderate one. The commercial value of the collection even as a thing to be broken up and to be sold piecemeal surely exceeded this price. Mr. Bancroft himself recognized clearly and patriotically that the place for the collection is here in California and he therefore made what is an outright and undoubted contribution of $100,000 toward its purchase, leaving the Regents to pay the remaining $150,000 from University funds in three installments of $50,000 each; payable, the first on the purchase of the library, the second one year from date, the third two years from date. The Regents have planned to distribute the expense as a charge against the Permanent Improvement fund for a series of five or six years. In no other way would the finances of the University permit the purchase. A similar plan was adopted for the purchase of the Hillegass Tract six years ago and on the completion of the payments this year the sum taken annually from the Permanent Improvement fund is now to be applied for the purchase of the Library. The Hillegass Tract is to-day worth more than

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double the price at which it was purchased; in six years I have no doubt that men will have recognized that the Bancroft Library is worth far more than double the money expended upon it.

"The acquisition makes more desirable than ever the speedy construction of the Charles F. Doe Library building, which ought to be, when finished, one of the best libraries in the country. For the present the collection will be housed on the third floor of California Hall, a verily fireproof building now approaching completion, or if the space there should on more careful inspection and measurement prove insufficient for the storage of the books and their proper use, it will be placed in the rooms designed for library purposes in the new Hearst Mining building."

SYMPHONY CONCERTS IN THE GREEK THEATRE.

The University of California is about to institute a symphony orchestra of professional musicians. Beginning Thursday afternoon, February 15, at 3:30 o'clock, and continuing every second Thursday afternoon until the end of April, a series of six symphony concerts will be given by an orchestra of fifty pieces, with Dr. J. Fred Wolle, Professor of Music in the University of California, as conductor.

These concerts will be given in the Greek Theatre except in case of inclement weather. Should the weather be unfavorable on any of the days arranged, the concert will be given in the Harmon Gymnasium, which has seating accommodations for 2,500 people. The hour selected is half-past three, in order that students and teachers may find it possible to be present. The intermissions between the numbers on the programme will be very brief, so that ordinarily the concert will be over by 5 o'clock, allowing visitors from across the bay to be in San Francisco by 6 o'clock.

The price of reserved seats for the series will be $5, and for seats not reserved,—in the Greek Theatre on the con-

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crete tiers above the diazoma—the price will be $3. Single admissions will be, for reserved seats in the chairs below the diazoma, $1, and for unreserved seats, 75 cents. Any profits which may result from the series will be added to the musical and dramatic fund of the University. There is no element of personal profit in the enterprise, as the undertaking is altogether of the highest public character.

The University could not have undertaken the very considerable financial responsibility of such a series of symphony concerts had it not been for the generous coöperation of Mr. F. M. Smith of Oakland, who has offered to serve as guarantor for the expenses of the series. It is, however, expected by the University that the public will so respond to this opportunity to hear the noblest music by a really fine orchestra that the series will become self-supporting. If this shall prove to be the case, the University will then expect to make an annual series of symphony concerts a permanent feature of its work. The establishment of such a permanent symphony orchestra as a part of the work of the University would be of the highest possible service to the musical life of the community.

For the first series Professor Wolle will select six symphonies which he thinks will have most in them of beauty and charm for a public so appreciative of music as is that of California. Each programme will include also three or four other orchestral numbers. The aid of the best professional musicians in San Francisco will be sought in the organization of the orchestra and all the members will, of course, be remunerated for their services. The University contributes the use of the Greek Theatre, or in case of need the Harmon Gymnasium. The services of Professor Wolle as conductor, and the aid of the Musical and Dramatic Committee in undertaking the administrative work connected with the series are freely given, and will involve no responsibility whatever to the budget of the University for the symphonies.

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A peculiarly notable feature of this symphony series is that it will close with a choral and orchestral concert on the afternoon of Thursday, April 26, when the University chorus of three hundred voices, organized here by Professor Wolle, will give the principal parts of Handel's "The Messiah" with solos and with the aid of the full symphony orchestra. This will be the first opportunity the public will have to hear the University chorus, in the establishment of which the students have taken such enthusiastic interest, and which has been preparing since last September, as throughout the spring it will continue to prepare, for this rendition of "The Messiah."

The University is now ready to receive subscriptions for season tickets for the symphony series. Subscriptions may be sent by mail to Professor William D. Armes, Chairman of the Musical and Dramatic Committee of the University of California, Berkeley, or subscription blanks may be obtained at Paul Elder's, 238 Post street; Sherman, Clay & Co., Kearny and Sutter streets; and Kohler & Chase, Post and Kearny streets, in San Francisco; and in Oakland at Smith Bros., 462 Thirteenth street; Kohler & Chase, 1013 Broadway; Sherman, Clay & Co., 1120 Broadway. In Berkeley subscription blanks are to be had at Sadler's, at the Coöperative Store and at the Recorder's Office.

COMING EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS.

A number of conventions of educational associations are to be held in California during the winter and spring, and many of them will meet wholly or in part at the University. The first of these gatherings will be the meeting of the California State Teachers' Association in Berkeley during the week beginning Tuesday, December 26. In connection with this meeting, a State Farmers' Institute will be held, a State Library Board convention, and a convention of School Boards and School Trustees. In addition to these, the institutes of seventeen counties in the vicinity of the Bay will

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convene in Berkeley. The county institutes alone will insure a large gathering of teachers, and the State Teachers' Association in addition, together with the Farmers' Institute and the School and Library Boards, will bring a total of probably five to eight thousand people, more or less directly identified with educational work, to the University town.

Church buildings and halls have been secured for the meetings of the numerous sections into which the various conventions will be divided; and the University has put at the disposal of the visitors all its available rooms. The general registration office, bureau of information and committee rooms will probably be in the new California Hall. Hearst Hall will be open every evening during the period of the conventions as a general place of rendezvous, for committee work and for sociability.

Aside from the meetings of sections devoted to the discussion of particular subjects, there will be joint meetings of the Farmers' Institute and the teachers of the elementary schools for the discussion of nature study and of elementary agriculture in rural schools; joint meetings of the library boards and school trustees for the consideration of matters of mutual interest touching the use of libraries; business meetings of separate organizations; and mass meetings for all, which will be addressed by prominent speakers. These authorities from other parts of the country will also assist at section meetings.

A feature of the occasion will be the opportunity to inspect the California Educational Exhibit which was displayed at St. Louis and at Portland, and which will be installed in rooms 15 and 16, North Hall.

APPRECIATIONS OF DR. WOLLE.

The appointment of Dr. Wolle to the chair of Music in the University of California has created great interest in musical circles in the East. The following interesting

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communication from Professor A. A. Stanley, Director of the School of Music in the University of Michigan, appeared September 6 in the *Musical Courier,* one of the leading musical publications in the country:

"To the Editor of the *Musical Courier:*

"Dear Sir:—Permit me to add to your appreciative words regarding the appointment of J. Fred. Wolle to the Chair of Music in the University of California. Possibly no other man could be found in whom combine more happily the essential qualifications for success in such a position—scholarship, enthusiasm, perseverance and tact—than Professor Wolle, and there exists in no other community, within my knowledge at least, more of inspiration for such a man than in Berkeley. Professor Wolle's achievements in Bethlehem are prophetic of the future. There can be no doubt that under his guidance there will develop an artistic atmosphere that will be unique and of inestimable value in the advancement of the highest artistic standard, not alone in California, but also in the whole country. Therefore it is a happy augury that the interests of music in one of our greatest universities are placed in the hands of such a master as Professor Wolle.

"Very sincerely,

"ALBERT A. STANLEY,
"Professor of Music, University of Michigan."

The *Musical Courier* made the following editorial comment upon the appointment of Dr. Wolle:

"The California University has just created a chair of music, and is setting out right to make that department a real factor in its educational work, and not an incumbrance—we had most said, a farce—like the music departments of Eastern universities. Dr. Wolle should be the right man in the right place. He is earnest in music, and the West is earnest in music. He will be given every encouragement, and the results are certain to follow his

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beneficent rule, for he has had practical experience at Bethlehem, where he transformed a village community into the best Bach choir we have in the country. There will be real music at the University of California after Dr. Wolle begins his duties there."

An account of the life and work of Professor Wolle, with a full-page portrait, appeared in the *Musical Courier* for October 4th.

GIFTS TO THE NEW HEARST MINING MUSEUM.

A prominent feature of the Hearst Memorial Mining Building will be the Museum of Mining and Metallurgy. This will not be a collection of minerals, ores, and rocks, such as is already provided for in the Museum of Mineralogy and Geology, but will contain collections of models of mines, showing the form of the deposits, the relation to the country rocks, and the methods of working the mines. A large number of these models are already in the possession of the Mining Department, having been portions of the official exhibits in some of the most celebrated cases which have appeared before the United States Courts.

In addition, it will contain models of mining and metallurgical machinery, and of furnaces. It will also contain collections showing the various products of mines, from the raw ore as it issues from the mine, through the various products of concentration, to the finished metal with all the intermediate products arranged so as to illustrate the whole method of treatment.

Gifts are coming in from time to time, which will be stored until the Museum is ready for occupancy.

Professor Christy has received a letter from the management of the Alaska Treadwell Gold Mining Company, which offers to donate the exhibit of the Alaska Treadwell Mining Company which appeared at the St. Louis and Portland Fairs to the New Hearst Mining Museum. This exhibit attracted a good deal of attention at both of the Fairs,

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and has been earnestly sought for by the different Chambers of Commerce as a portion of their exhibits. It consists of a series of models showing the actual size of the gold bricks produced by the Alaska Treadwell Mine for each year since it was opened, up to, and including, the year 1904. These bricks are all gilded with gold and have printed upon them the product for each year.

Another of the interesting gifts to this Museum was made some time ago by Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst. This consists of two large columns each made up of six large blocks of ore cut from the various working levels of the Homestake Mine in South Dakota. These blocks are dressed on three faces and are left rough on the other faces and have cut upon them the places from which they were taken in the mine. The first column represents the ore from the "Open Cut," and from the 100, 200, 300, 400 and 500 foot levels of the mine. The other column has ore from the 600, 700, 800, 900, 1,000 and 1,100 foot levels. These blocks of rock are masses of the country rock which have evidently been fractured and re-cemented with quartz, making of each block a solid mass of gold bearing ore. This will remain an interesting and permanent exhibit long after this great mine is worked out.

These gifts from Homestake and Treadwell Mines are interesting as coming from the two most remarkable mines of low grade gold ores in the world. The ore from these two mines runs from only two to four dollars per ton, and yet, owing to the great size of the deposits, and the skill with which they have been worked, they have yielded large fortunes to their owners.

Among those who have contributed to the success of these mines are several California graduates. At the Alaska Treadwell Mine, Mr. Frederick W. Bradley, Class of '86 (Mining), is General Manager, and Mr. Robert A. Kinzie, Class of '97 (Mechanics), is Superintendent; at the Homestake Mine, Mr. Charles W. Merrill of the Class of '91

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(Mining) erected, and made a success of, the large cyanide plant there, after several Eastern experts reported that the ore could not be successfully worked by that process.

OTHER GIFTS TO THE UNIVERSITY.

An important gift from the Consul General of Mexico at New York has been received at the Library. It is a magnificent work entitled "Mexico, Its Social Evolution," in three folio volumes, profusely illustrated with portraits, views, maps, and colored plates. It is an authoritative exposition of the progress during the past century and present condition of our southern neighbor nation, and of its material and intellectual advance, composed by numerous able specialist writers.

Mr. William H. Mills has presented to the Library a set of bound volumes of the Sacramento Record-Union from July, 1867, to March, 1903.

Col. Thomas H. Handbury, U.S.A., Corps of Engineers, has made a gift to the Library of several hundred volumes of works on civil engineering.

The Pelton Water Wheel Company of San Francisco has given to the Department of Mechanics a 30-inch tangential water wheel, with needle regulating nozzle, brake wheel and shaft complete. This gift was made through Mr. George J. Henry, '93, the engineer for the Pelton Company.

Hon. Charles W. Slack has given to the Library a collection of two hundred and thirty-four volumes on English Law.

In order to provide for the work of the Department of Anthropology and for the completion of the collecting and cataloguing of its various exhibits, Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst has given the sum of $60,000, to be used in amounts not

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exceeding $20,000 each year. This is in addition to the gift of the archaeological and anthropological collections, made by Mrs. Hearst at a cost of somewhat over $400,000.

Mrs. Hearst will also provide for the printing of the results of the explorations of Dr. Uhle in Peru and of Dr. Reisner and his associates in Egypt, and also for the completion of the Tebtunis Papyri volumes, one of which has already been published.

A portrait of Mr. John Swett, who was Superintendent of Public Instruction from 1862 to 1867, and who organized the public school system of California, has been offered to the University by a number of admirers who desire to do him honor, and the gift has been accepted. In accordance with the wish of the donors, the picture will be hung on the walls of the Library, as an addition to the collection of portraits of great California teachers.

The thanks of the Board of Regents have been extended to Mr. E. A. Denicke for his annual contribution of forty dollars to bring the annual income from his donation to the Library fund up to $100.

Professor Gayley, Professor of the English Language and Literature, has received a medal and diploma from the Jury of Awards of the St. Louis Exposition in recognition of his services as Chairman of the English Section of the Educational Congress and Speaker on the History of Literature.

The University of California Library is in receipt of a commemorative diploma issued by the International Jury of Awards of the St. Louis Purchase Exposition, to President Wheeler for services rendered in the International Congress of Arts and Sciences as speaker in the department of history and language. This Congress was held under the auspices of the Exposition.

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THE WEINHOLD LIBRARY.

The Library of Karl Weinhold, late Professor of German Philology in the University of Berlin, presented to the University of California by Mr. John D. Spreckels for the enrichment of the opportunities for study and research in Germanic Philology, has been installed in the University Library. The members and friends of the University were invited to view the collection in Seminar Room II of the Bacon Library Building, on the morning of September 22. Dr. Hugo Karl Schilling, Professor of the German Language and Literature, was at the Library to show the treasures of the collection to all who were interested.

A full description of this library, written by Professor Schilling, appears in this number of the CHRONICLE.

APPOINTMENTS AND CHANGES.

Since the September number of the CHRONICLE the following appointments to the staff of the University have been made: J. Fred. Wolle, Professor of Music; Dr. William Popper, Instructor in Semitic Languages, to succeed Professor Max Margolis, resigned; Eugene R. Hallett, '05, Secretary to the President; E. A. Hugill, Superintendent of Grounds and Buildings, to succeed A. L. Bolton, resigned; Sturla Einarson, Assistant in Astronomy; Warren Vester Clark, '92, Assistant in Civil Engineering; Anna W. Rosenmuller, Mail Clerk in the Library, to succeed F. T. Blanchard, '05, resigned; Herbert A. Stout, Evening Assistant in the Library, to succeed J. A. Rowell, resigned; Pauline Gunthorp, senior Cataloguer in the Library, to succeed Edna L. Goss, resigned; Beatrice J. Barker, Cataloguer in the Library, to succeed Miss Gunthorp, promoted; Dr. J. C. Blair, '01, Assistant in Anatomy; J. H. Barber, Foreman of the Santa Monica Forestry Station; Donald Walter Davis, Assistant in Zoology, to succeed L. Griggs, resigned; James A. Force, '05, and John W. Geary, '04, Assistants

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to the Commandant; F. H. Glasson, '03, Clerk in the Department of Mining and Metallurgy, to succeed C. H. Dunning, '98, resigned; J. A. Daly, '05, Assistant in Physics, to succeed Paul Thelen, '04, resigned; Miss E. G. Field, Stenographer in the Department of Anthropology; Dr. Sanford Blum, '94, Instructor in Pediatrics.

President Wheeler has appointed Mr. J. B. Neff, of Anaheim, as Conductor of Farmers' Institutes in Southern California. Mr. Neff is a well known fruit grower of Orange County and has been for years a leader in the local association of walnut growers and manager of the Southern California Deciduous Fruit Exchange. He has also been prominent as a speaker at Farmers' Institutes in Southern California and is thoroughly in sympathy with University Extension in agricultural lines and will proceed energetically in organizing meetings to be held during the coming winter and spring. Mr. Neff's residence at Anaheim will be of advantage in his work, as it is a central location in a county of notable agricultural specialties, as well as greatly diversified agriculture.

Mrs. D. L. Bunnell has been appointed Clerk to the Director of the Department of Agriculture, to succeed Mr. C. A. Colmore, '94, resigned. Mr. Colmore has taken a position as Assistant to Manager James R. Davis of the Students' Coöperative Society.

Mr. J. V. Mendenhall, '00, has resigned as Stenographer to the President to accept a position with the California Promotion Committee in San Francisco. Mr. Robert Odell, '02, has been appointed to the position of President's Stenographer.

President Wheeler attended the Teachers' Institute of Monterey County at Monterey in October, and delivered an address on Education on the Pacific Coast. On November 2d he spoke at the session of the Northern California Teachers' Association at Red Bluff. In order to attend the

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meeting of the National Association of American Agricultural Colleges and United States Agricultural Experiment Stations, held at Washington, November 14 to 17, the President was obliged to cancel a number of other engagements for the more important purpose of securing information at this meeting on matters of interest to the University. During his absence in the East he represented the University of California at a meeting of the National Association of Presidents of State Universities, held in Washington.

A CATALOGUE OF THE ACADEMIC SENATE.

The University of California will shortly issue a catalogue of the Academic Senate from 1869 to 1905, which has been compiled by Professor William A. Merrill. This catalogue will contain the names of all present and former members of the Senate with the positions held by them and the dates of assuming and retiring from their positions. As the Academic Senate is composed of all holding the title of Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor and Instructor, together with those holding other titles of equivalent rank, this catalogue includes the staffs of the professional schools in San Francisco. A complete index adds to the utility of this valuable compilation.

HONORS FOR SCHOLARSHIP.

The Committee on Prerequisites of the Academic Council has recommended the adoption of a plan for awarding honors and honorable mention as an encouragement to scholarly effort. According to this plan, each department is authorized to offer annually subjects for independent study and investigation, and to recommend for honors with the bachelor's degree such students as shall have satisfied the requirements for honors. There will be two grades awarded, honors and highest honors. The requirements for honors will be normally as follows:—

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Every candidate for honors must pass in a manner evincing marked grasp and efficiency an examination on the subject or topic which he offers for honors, and must present such written papers as may be called for.

Every candidate for honors, in addition to passing the examination for honors, must complete in a thoroughly satisfactory manner fifteen units of Upper Division work in the department from which he desires the recommendation.

Applications for candidacy for honors should be presented as soon as possible after entering the Upper Division. No application will be received later than eight months before graduation.

The Academic Council will establish a standing committee of seven members on honors, whose duty it shall be to report from time to time on matters concerning uniformity of standard and the coördination of the requirements of the several departments.

The term "Honorable Mention" will be placed on the Junior Certificates of students that have attained at least second grade in forty-five units of their freshman and sophomore courses, and the same term will be employed in the official lists of graduating students in order to designate those that have attained first grade in fifteen units of advanced studies (*i.e.*, courses of Group Elective Grade), and at least second grade in 21 additional units of work in the Upper Division of the Colleges of General Culture, or of the regular Junior and Senior work in the Colleges of Applied Science.

THE BONNHEIM DISSERTATION PRIZES.

The Committee on the Bonnheim Dissertation Prize Competition have awarded the prizes for 1905 to H. E. Squire, '06, and D. Hadsell, '06. There were eight contestants, but the committee decided that but two of the dissertations were worthy of consideration for the prize. Mr. Squire has the additional distinction of being the first

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winner of a Bonnheim Dissertation prize from the colleges of Applied Science. He is registered in the College of Civil Engineering.

The Bonnheim Discussion Prize of $150 will be awarded to one of these two men at the competition which will be held at Hearst Hall, December 9. The topic for the dissertations and discussions of this year is Voltaire's *dictum*: International law is the jurisprudence of highway robbers.

THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.

The committee in charge of the Rhodes Scholarships in the State of California hereby make formal announcement that hereafter the scholarships will be assigned in open competition between the students of all the universities and colleges of the State of California. The next examination for the Rhodes Scholarship will be held early in 1907. Information concerning the terms and conditions may be obtained by addressing the chairman of this committee. The committee is composed of Benj. Ide Wheeler, chairman, David Starr Jordan, and E. C. Norton.

A NEW GRADUATE FELLOWSHIP.

The Board of Regents of the University recently received a request from Mme. Thérèse F. Colin, Professor of French in Wellesley College, to be permitted to give property worth about $12,000 as an endowment to be known as "The Thérèse F. Colin European Graduate Fellowship Fund," with the provision that she shall receive the income from the fund during her lifetime. The endowment was accepted, with the thanks of the Regents, at their meeting on November 14.

A CURRENT HISTORY ESSAY PRIZE.

An annual prize of $100 for the best essay on some subject in the field of current history, open to students in the University of California, has been offered by Arthur I.

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Street, '90, and Willard P. Calkins, the publishers of the *Pandex of the Press,* San Francisco.

A first prize of five hundred dollars and a second of three hundred dollars have been offered to the students of the Universities of the State of California for the best essays on the subject Moral Training in Public Schools. The prizes have been offered by a citizen of the state who wishes his name withheld.

The length of the essay is to be not more than 12,000 nor less than 6,000 words; each essay must be submitted in typewritten form and all essays are to be in the hands of the committee of award by June 1, 1906. The donor of the prizes has appointed Rev. Charles R. Brown of Oakland, President David Starr Jordan of Stanford University, and Professor Fletcher B. Dresslar of the University of California as trustees of the fund and sole judges of the merits of the essays submitted.

THE PHILOSOPHICAL UNION.

The programme of the Philosophical Union for the year 1905–6 is a study of the Philosophy of Religion, based upon Principal Caird's Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion. The following is the list of discussions for the first half-year:

September 29.—The Scope of Human Knowledge. The question whether reason is capable of a knowledge of God. Determination of the limits and powers of reason, particularly in the light of the doctrine of the relativity of all human knowledge. Especial consideration of the views of Herbert Spencer. Professor C. H. Rieber, '88. Discussion opened by Mr. Charles A. Keeler, ex-'93.

October 27.—The Apparent Conflict of Reason and Faith. The assertion of an immediate knowledge of God which is beyond reason. Examination of the precise character of such intuitive knowledge or "faith." Whether

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"faith" is in conflict with reason or is itself intrinsically rational. Rev. E. L. Parsons, rector of St. Mark's Episcopal Church, Berkeley. Discussion opened by Mr. Tracy R. Kelley, '96.

November 24.—The Apparent Conflict of Reason and Revelation. Whether reason and revelation are in essential opposition. The distinction between what is "contrary to reason" and what is "above reason." The real significance of a divine revelation. Rev. W. K. Guthrie, minister of the First Presbyterian Church, San Francisco. Discussion opened by Rev. W. R. Hodgkin, '00.

December 15.—The Necessity of Religion. Examination of materialistic objections to religion. The question whether the religious point of view is essential to human intelligence. What, precisely, the "necessity of religion" implies. Professor John W. Buckham, of the Pacific Theological Seminary. Discussion opened by Mr. Warner Brown, '04.

During the second half-year the programme will be:

January 26, 1906.—Proofs of the Existence of God. Critical examinations of the main traditional proofs of the existence of God. Whether, singly or together, they are successful as demonstrations. Their value as steps of the process by which we rise to a knowledge of God. Rev. Earl M. Wilbur, Dean of the Unitarian Theological School, Oakland. Discussion opened by Dr. M. E. Blanchard, '87.

February 23.—The Nature of Religious Consciousness. Whether religion is based on man's intelligent nature or is simply a form of feeling. The distinction between religious and scientific knowing. Whether religious experience can be adequately explained in terms of normal consciousness. Dr. F. W. Wrinch, Würzburg, '01. Discussion opened by Mr. A. C. Skaife, '00.

March 30.—Relation of the Philosophy to the History of Religion. The importance for philosophy of an historical treatment of religion. The equal necessity for a

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philosophical interpretation of religious facts. Exemplification of the relation of philosophy and history by reference to the world religions. Professor W. F. Badè, of the Pacific Theological Seminary. Discussion opened by Rev. J. W. Hudson, '05.

April 27.—The Speculative Idea of Religion. Discussion of inadequate and erroneous conceptions of God, and development of an adequate view. The relation of God, Nature, and Human Mind. Criticism, especially, of the solutions of Pantheism and Anthropomorphism, and estimate of the solution offered by the author. Professor H. A. Overstreet, '99. Discussion opened by Professor C. W. Wells.

May 11.—Relation of Morality and Religion. The moral life as a stage preparatory to the religious. Whether religion is essential to complete morality. Religion as the realization of the moral ideal. The function of religious worship. Rev. J. H. Lathrop, minister of the First Unitarian Church, Berkeley. Discussion opened by Rev. William Higgs, assistant in the Church of St. John the Evangelist, San Francisco.

THE NEW FOLK-LORE SOCIETIES.

The Berkeley Folk-Lore Club and the California Branch of the American Folk-Lore Society, which were organized in August, while they are not University organizations in the sense of being confined to members of the University, are largely identified with it through the activity of members of the faculty and of the Alumni. The first named club met at the Faculty Club on November 28 to hear its first paper, which was read by Professor Fletcher B. Dresslar on the subject, Some Studies in Superstition. The California Branch of the American Folk-lore Society held its fourth meeting on November 14 in South Hall, where Professor John Fryer delivered an illustrated lecture on Fox Myths in Chinese Folk-lore.

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The third meeting of the Branch, at the St. Francis Hotel, San Francisco, on October 30, was devoted to Japanese Folk-lore. The Branch was organized August 28, as noted in the last number of the CHRONICLE, and held its second meeting in conjunction with the American Anthropological Association on August 31.

THE PHILOLOGICAL CLUB.

At the meetings of the Philological Club the following papers have been presented:

September 11.—The Aim and Purpose of the New Curriculum, by Professor Alexis F. Lange.

October 2.—The Objects and Methods of Instruction in Latin in the Lower Division, by Professor H. W. Prescott.

October 30.—Textual and Genealogical Questions in C. I. L., XIV 309, by Professor Clifton Price.

Horace's Alcaic Strophe, by Professor L. J. Richardson.

November 27.—Objects and Methods of Instruction in the Lower Division, by Professor C. W. Wells.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICS.

The Department of Physics at its bi-weekly meetings has discussed a number of questions concerned with the work of the Department. These meetings are open to all interested in the subjects. A summary of the discussions of the first half-year is here given:

September 15.—The apparatus and methods employed in the Cryogenic Laboratory at Leyden were described by Dr. A. W. Gray.

September 29.—The Measurement of High Temperatures, by Dr. T. C. McKay.

October 13.—The Differential Electrodynamometer, by Professor Raymond.

The Measurement of High Temperatures, by Dr. T. C. McKay.

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October 27.—Electricity and Radio-activity of the Atmosphere, by Professor E. P. Lewis.

November 10.—Professor Brace and his Work on the Relative Motion of Ether and Matter, by Dr. R. S. Minor.

November 24.—Connection and Displacement Currents, by Dr. L. A. Parsons.

December 8.—Radiation Pressure of Sound Waves, by Dr. Elmer E. Hall.

THE HARVEY CLUB.

The first public meeting of the Harvey Club for the current year was held November 28, and was addressed by Professor F. W. Bancroft on the subject The Response of Animals to the Electric Current.

UNIVERSITY MEETINGS.

September 8.—A meeting was held in the Greek Theatre in honor of the Association of Officers of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, whose convention was held this year in San Francisco. The speakers were Hon. Charles P. Neil, U. S. Commissioner of Labor, and David Ross, Labor Commissioner of the State of Illinois.

September 22.—A meeting was held in commemoration of the Weinhold Library, secured for the University through the generosity of Mr. John D. Spreckels. The speakers were Professor Hugo Karl Schilling, who described the Library and appraised its value, and Mr. John McNaught, Managing Editor of the San Francisco Call, who spoke in behalf of Mr. Spreckels.

October 6.—At a meeting in the Harmon Gymnasium the speakers were Hon. J. G. Maguire and Professor Fred. J. Wolle, recently appointed to the new Chair of Music.

October 20.—The meeting was held in Hearst Hall. The speakers were Professor Charles Mills Gayley, who spoke on the subject of Opportunities for Self-discipline in the

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University Course, and Rev. John H. Lathrop of the Unitarian Church, Berkeley, whose subject was College Spirit.

November 10.—A very enthusiastic meeting in the Harmon Gymnasium was addressed by Professor Charles Zueblin, of the Department of Sociology of the University of Chicago, and Mr. John S. Partridge, U. C., '92, recently a candidate for Mayor of San Francisco. Both spoke on matters concerned with municipal government.

November 24.—A meeting in the Harmon Gymnasium was addressed by President Wheeler and by Professor Richard G. Moulton, Professor of Literary Theory and Interpretation in the University of Chicago.

COLLEGE OF COMMERCE LECTURES.

Following are the addresses that have been made at the weekly meetings of the College of Commerce:

August 28.—Economic Aspects of Irrigation, by Mr. R. P. Teele, of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

September 11.—The Value of the College of Commerce Course, by A. C. Miller, Flood Professor of Political Economy and Commerce.

September 18.—The Chicago Municipal Museum, by Professor Charles Zueblin, of the University of Chicago.

September 25.—The Governmental Regulation of Railroad Rates, by Mr. William Sproule, of the Southern Pacific Railroad Company.

October 2.—Railway Rate Regulation and the Interstate Commerce Commission, by Professor Carl C. Plehn.

October 9.—The Financing of a County, by Mr. Charles Husband, Assistant Treasurer of Alameda County.

October 16.—The Russo-Japanese Treaty and its Consequences, by Professor Bernard Moses.

October 23.—The Single Tax, by ex-Congressman James G. Maguire.

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October 30.—Estimating the Profits of a Corporation, by Professor H. R. Hatfield.

November 6.—The Difficulties of Establishing Certain Manufactures on the Pacific Coast, by Mr. George W. Dickie, of the Union Iron Works, San Francisco.

November 13.—The Regulation and Control of San Francisco Harbor, by Mr. Charles Spear, President of the State Board of Harbor Commissioners.

November 20.—Development of Commerce with the Orient, by Mr. Horace Davis, formerly President of the University of California.

November 27.—Organization and what it means to a Retail Business, by Mr. R. B. Hale, of Hale Bros., San Francisco.

December 4.—Recent Observations of Conditions in Mexico, by Mr. Franklin K. Lane.

THE HERZSTEIN LECTURES.

A series of six lectures during the month of October, provided for by the generosity of Dr. Morris Herzstein of San Francisco, were delivered at the Mark Hopkins Institute of Art by Dr. Alonzo Englebert Taylor, Professor of Pathology and Herzstein Lecturer of the University of California, on the following dates and subjects:

October 10.—The Toxic Agent in Gastro-intestinal Auto-intoxication.

October 13.—The Theory of Disinfection.

October 17.—The Relations of the Nitrogenous to the Carbonous Metabolism in Disease.

October 20.—The Value of Kryoscopic Investigations for Pathology and Diagnosis.

October 24.—The Derivation of the Body Sugar in the Diabetic.

October 27.—The Derivation of the Body Sugar in the Diabetic.

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LECTURES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ROMANIC LANGUAGES.

The Department of Romanic Languages has undertaken a series of public lectures to extend throughout the year on various French, Spanish, and Italian topics. The first series was given by Professor S. A. Chambers on the general subject of Some Great French Books, as follows:

October 12.—The Song of Roland.

October 19.—The Romance of Renart.

October 26.—The Romance of the Rose.

The second series was given in French by Mr. E. B. Lamare, on the subject Prominent Frenchmen of the 18th Century, as follows:

October 31.—Men of Science.

November 7.—Controversial Writers.

November 14.—Moralists and Poets.

November 21.—The Influence of Women.

A third series, in English, by Mr. Carlos Bransby, was devoted to the discussion of Juan Valera, the Spanish novelist.

November 2.—Juan Valera, the Man.

November 9.—Juan Valera, the Poet and Critic.

November 16.—Juan Valera, the Novelist.

A series of lectures in English by Mr. Robert Dupouey was given on the following subjects:

November 20.—The Barbizon School of Painters.

November 24.—The Work and Influence of François Millet.

November 27.—The Life of Gallois.

December 1.—Life and Character of Father Didon.

December 4 and 8.—Father Didon and the Leading Monks of France.

LECTURES BY DR. DOUGLASS HYDE.

By the generosity of Mr. James D. Phelan of San Francisco, it has been provided that the University of California

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shall have the opportunity of hearing four lectures by the distinguished President of the Gaelic League, Dr. Douglass Hyde, of Dublin. Dr. Hyde arrived in New York in November, and is to lecture in various cities and at various universities of the East during December and January. His first college lecture was at Harvard on the 20th of November. He will reach California about the middle of February, and his lectures at the University of California will then begin immediately.

LECTURES BY PROFESSOR ANATOLE LE BRAZ.

Professor Anatole Le Braz, lecturer for the Federation de l'Alliance Française, will deliver a series of lectures at the University of California during the week beginning April 23, 1906. These lectures will be the same as Professor Le Braz delivered before the Cercle Française at Harvard, and will be of the utmost interest to those given to the study of French and the French people.

ENTERTAINMENTS OF THE MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC COMMITTEE.

The popular Scottish Day Entertainment, first given on July 15, was repeated in the Greek Theatre on the evening of September 8, with several new features. The proceeds were devoted to the purchase of Scottish literature for the Library of the University.

Mr. Edwin Emerson, Jr., one of the most famous of modern war correspondents, lectured under the auspices of the Musical and Dramatic Committee, September 13, at Hearst Hall. His subject was Running the Blockade at Port Arthur. The lecture was illustrated with stereopticon views.

On the afternoon of September 21 the University and the general public were given an opportunity to hear the music of the Bohemian Club Jinks for 1904. The concert

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was given under the direction of Mr. W. J. McCoy, with the following programme:

Andante from the Unfinished Symphony in B Minor..*Franz Schubert*
The Man in the Forest.....*Joseph D. Redding*
Symphonic Legend, with orchestration by W. J. McCoy.
The Hamadryads.....*W. J. McCoy*

The Man in the Forest expressed in allegory Bohemia's protection of the redwoods, and was taken from the Midsummer Jinks of 1902. The Hamadryads is the title of the Jinks of 1904.

On Friday, November 3, a concert was given in the Greek Theatre by Ellery's Italian Band, under the auspices of the Musical and Dramatic Committee.

THE HALF-HOUR OF MUSIC.

September 10.—A Mendelssohn Concerto, by Mr. August Hinrichs, violinist, and Mr. Frederick Maurer, pianist.

September 17.—The choir of the First Congregational Church, Oakland, conducted by Mr. Alexander Stewart, with a quartette composed of Mrs. Grace Davis Northrup, soprano; Mrs. Carroll Nicholson, contralto; Mr. Chester Rosekrans, tenor; and Mr. Henry L. Perry, bass; assisted by Miss Virginie De Fremery, accompanist.

September 24.—Mr. Samuel Savannah, violinist; Mr. William Wertsch, 'cellist, and Mr. Arthur Fickenscher, pianist.

October 1.—The Orpheus Club, of Oakland.

October 8.—The vested choir of men and boys of the Church of the Advent, San Francisco, conducted by Mr. John De P. Teller, organist and choirmaster, assisted by Mr. Frank Onslow, alto; Mr. Arthur A. Macurda, tenor; Mr. Henry L. Perry, bass; and Mr. Rea Hanna, '00, accompanist.

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October 15.—A programme of vocal and instrumental music given by Mrs. Marian E. B. Robinson, Miss Elsie Arden, Mr. Walter Chauncey Campbell, and Mr. Nathan Landsberger, with Mrs. Landsberger and Miss Julia Rapier Tharp as accompanists.

October 22.—The University Cadet Band, Mr. S. Frederick Long, Jr., '06, director.

October 29.—A programme of vocal and instrumental music under the direction of Mr. W. J. McCoy.

November 5.—The Minetti Orchestra of San Francisco, under the direction of Mr. Giulio Minetti.

November 12.—The Brahms Quintet, composed of Miss Millie Flynn, soprano; Mrs. Cecelia Decker Cox, contralto; Mr. Arthur A. Macurda, tenor; Mr. Henry L. Perry, basso; Miss Julia Rapier Tharp, pianist.

November 19.—A programme of vocal and instrumental music was given under the direction of Mrs. Marriner Campbell by Mrs. Lillie Birmingham, contralto; Mrs. Klippel Schaffter, soprano; Miss Grace Freeman, violinist; Miss Julia Rapier Tharp and Mr. Fred Maurer, accompanists.

November 26.—The programme was given by the University Glee Club, conducted by Mr. Clement R. Rowlands, with Miss Harriet Smyth, accompanist; assisted by Miss Mabel Viola Gross, soprano, with Mr. J. B. Warburton, accompanist, and by Mr. T. K. Sweezy, trombonist.

December 3.—Mrs. Walter Longbotham, contralto; Mr. Claude Rossignol, violinist; Mr. Walter Longbotham, tenor; Miss Carrie Sheureman, pianist; Mrs. Laura Deay Perry, accompanist.

A lecture by Mr. Richard Mansfield, the distinguished actor, was delivered at the University on Thursday afternoon, November 23, under the auspices of the Musical and Dramatic Committee. Mr. Mansfield's subject was Talking *versus* Acting.

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ANCIENT ART EXHIBIT OPENED.

The exhibit of plaster casts and reproductions illustrative of ancient art has been arranged in the storage building of the Department of Anthropology in Berkeley. The collection numbers five hundred pieces, large and small, which are arranged in approximate chronological order, beginning with Oriental art, through the archaic and middle Greek Periods, down to Hellenistic and Roman times. The exhibit has been fully catalogued and labeled. Dr. P. E. Goddard, of the Department of Anthropology, is in charge of the exhibit.

GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS.

During the remodeling of the Harmon Gymnasium, a portion of the old building was moved to a convenient position west of the Telegraph avenue entrance to the grounds and has there been fitted up for the use of the department of Entomology. A coat of shingles gives a pleasing appearance to the exterior of the building, while the interior has been arranged to provide students with greatly needed laboratory facilities. Five rooms for individual work have been provided, which students specializing in entomology may have the privilege of keeping for one or two terms for their exclusive use. Up to the present time research work such as is now provided for has been almost impossible to undergraduates.

Aside from these exceptional facilities for research work, the building will be the most completely appointed and conveniently arranged entomological laboratory in the United States. At least eighteen hives of bees will be housed in the attic of the building, where their actions can be observed by students and instructors. On the top floor there is stacked a set of specimens of hymenopterous insects, probably the most complete collection of California bees, wasps and ants in the country. The apiary, the specimen reference department, the anatomical laboratories with

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their valuable microtomes, the photographic department, the high, low and medium temperature rooms, lecture rooms and offices, make the new entomological building one of the most satisfactorily arranged buildings on the University grounds.

Work has been commenced on a small building to be erected near the Euclid avenue entrance to the University grounds, for the use of the Department of Architecture. Hitherto the instruction in architecture and the work of the University architect and his staff have been carried on in rented rooms in Berkeley. The new building will cost about $5,000, and while obviating the expense of outside offices will also add greatly to the convenience of Professor John Galen Howard, his associates and students.

Contracts have been let to the amount of $2,765 to Nelson & Boldt for putting in the doors and windows of the President's house. The building has long been standing in an unfinished condition, owing to uncertainty as to the uses to which it would be put. It will now be carried to completion and used as the residence of the President of the University.

Kidder & McCullough have been awarded a contract for $13,001 for further interior work on California Hall. This contract will provide for stationary office fixtures, blackboards, platforms, book-cases, and the like. The Regents have made an appropriation of $10,000 from the Permanent Improvement Fund for the furniture in California Hall. The furniture is to be made to order for this building.

The completion of California Hall has been so long delayed that it has not been possible to occupy it during the first half-year. The registration for the second half-year will in all likelihood be held in the new building, as the administrative offices of the University will probably move to their new rooms during the Christmas vacation.

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Unexpected delays have also prevented the use of the Harmon Gymnasium by classes during the first half-year. The new shower baths have been completed, and the new steel lockers will all be installed by the end of the year. Owing to the fact that the gymnasium has not been open to the use of students, the men who paid the gymnasium deposit at the beginning of the term will receive a rebate on the deposit, payable when the gymnasium is ready for classes. Students registered for prescribed work in gymnastics will be given credit for the half-year's work.

It has been decided to lay an asphalt sidewalk between the gymnasium and the present end of the cement walk west of South Hall.

SOME INTERESTING MOJAVE MYTHS.

The Department of Anthropology has recently brought to completion an investigation in connection with its Ethnological and Anthropological Survey of California. Two Mojave Indians from the interior desert in Southern California spent ten days at the Anthropological Building at the Affiliated Colleges in San Francisco, and during this time two extensive ceremonies were recorded from their recitation of them. Most of the ceremonies of the Mojaves are peculiar in being little else than long myths interspersed with great numbers of songs. The myths recount the origin of the world, of animals and people, traditionary migrations and intertribal wars, and supernatural events The number of songs, each distinct from the others, varies from one hundred to four hundred, and the time consumed by a complete ceremony, conducted without intermission, is from one to two nights. The two ceremonies now obtained are the ninth and tenth that have been recorded from this tribe. The entire narrative or spoken portions have been written down. The songs, and parts of the narrative, have been recorded on phonograph cylinders in the

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Mojave language, thus preserving with almost unique completeness for further study two of the most characteristic ceremonies of the Indians of the state.

FIRE IN THE HILLS.

On Monday, October 9, the University and many Berkeley residences were threatened by a grass fire which started near Grizzly Peak and assisted by a high wind spread rapidly over the hills back of the University. Students of the University in large numbers readily took up the task of fighting the fire, and it was very largely due to their efforts that no serious damage was done. Appreciation of the efforts of the students was shown by many letters of thanks from residents of Berkeley whose property was threatened, and by two checks, of fifty dollars each, one from Mr. Frank M. Wilson of Berkeley to the Associated Students, and the other from James Kenny, chief of the Berkeley Fire Department. The latter check was for one-half the amount given by Judge John Garber in recognition of the services rendered under the direction of Chief Kenny in fighting the fire, and divided by Mr. Kenny between the fire department and the students, in appreciation of the assistance received from them. The money was turned over to the Associated Students, to be used to pay for medical services or expenses for injuries to clothing incurred by students in their efforts to stop the fire.

RECENT UNIVERSITY PUBLICATIONS.

The following publications in the various scientific series of the University have appeared since the last mention in the CHRONICLE:

Botany.—Teratology in the Flowers of Some Californian Willows, by William Warner Mott. Vol. II, No. 7.

Classical Philology.—On the Influence of Lucretius on Horace, by William A. Merrill. Vol. I, No. 4.

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Geology.—Differential Thermal Conductivities of Certain Schists, by Paul Thelen. Vol. IV, No. 11.

A Sketch of the Geology of Mineral King, by A. Knopf and Paul Thelen. Vol. IV, No. 12.

The Cold Water Belt along the West Coast of the United States, by Ruliff S. Holway. Vol. IV, No. 13.

Zoology.—The Pelagic Copepoda of the San Diego Region, by C. O. Esterly. Vol. II, No. 4.

The Non-incrusting Chilostomatous Bryozoa of the West Coast of North America, by Alice Robertson. Vol. II, No. 5.

Physiology.—On the Influence of Electrolytes on the Toxicity of Alkaloids, by T. Brailsford Robertson. Vol. II, No. 17.

On the Toxicity of Sea-water for Fresh-water Animals, by C. W. W. Ostwald. Vol. II, No. 18.

On the Validity of Pflüger's Law for the Galvanotropic Reaction of Paramecium, by Frank W. Bancroft. Vol. II, No. 19.

On Chemical Methods by which the Eggs of a Mollusc (*Lottia Gigantea*) can be caused to become Mature, by Jacques Loeb. Vol. III, No. 1.

PROFESSOR STEPHENS IN THE EAST.

Professor Henry Morse Stephens has been invited to deliver a course of eight lectures in Boston on the subject The Enlightened Despotisms of the Eighteenth Century, under the auspices of the Lowell Institute. The Lowell Institute is probably the most famous lecture foundation in America. The greatest scholars from all parts of the world are invited to deliver lectures in their respective fields under the Lowell Institute Endowment.

After completing his course of lectures in Boston, Professor Stephens will attend the meeting of the American

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Historical Association in Baltimore, and will there deliver a second series of lectures for the Association. He will return to California early in January.

GROWTH IN THE GREEK DEPARTMENT.

The growth of the classes in the Greek Department of the University this year shows a remarkable tendency towards the culture courses. The three elementary courses in Greek (first year, second year, and Freshman year) show a gain, the total number of students in the three courses having risen from 74 to 109. The enrollment in Freshman Greek is 44, against 41 of last year. The number of students beginning Greek is 40, against 22 in 1904 and 12 in 1903.

Beginning October 29, the Library of the University has been open to the use of readers from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. on Sundays. This innovation has added greatly to the usefulness of the Library.

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THE GRADUATES.

A NEW GRADUATE CATALOGUE.

A comprehensive catalogue of the graduates of all departments of the University has just been published and will be distributed to all graduates whose addresses are known. A catalogue of graduates of the Academic Colleges was published in 1899. The present catalogue differs from that of 1899 in including graduates of the Colleges of Medicine, Dentistry and Veterinary Science; of the Hastings College of the Law and of the California College of Pharmacy. As the courses of the Mark Hopkins Institute of Art and of the Post-graduate Medical Department do not lead to a degree, the students of these departments of the University are not represented in this catalogue.

The catalogue contains a sketch of the front elevation of the proposed Alumni Hall. Together with this book, which is neatly bound in blue cloth with gold lettering, there have been sent out to all the accessible graduates circulars describing the method by which funds for the Alumni Hall are being raised; a pamphlet containing an account of the Greek Theatre reprinted from the *Sunset Magazine* for December, 1903, with a statement from President Wheeler added, calling attention to the proposed plan for marble seats to be put in the amphitheatre by contributions from the classes; a circular suggesting the availability of the UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE as an Alumni organ; and blank record cards to be filled out and returned by the graduates to be used as the basis of a complete card catalogue of the Alumni.

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The information contained in the catalogue is as complete as the available records allow. The lack of accurate records of graduates of the professional schools, of Law, Medicine, Dentistry, and Pharmacy is particularly noticeable and unfortunate, but what is given will serve as a basis for more accurate records to be collected later. The labor involved in collecting the material has been considerable, and the thanks of the University and of its graduates are due to Mr. Alfred C. Skaife, '00, who inaugurated the work and carried it through.

Nothing will be of more value to the University at the present stage of its history than an understanding on the part of the graduates of its work and aims, and their cooperation in its development. Such has been the growth of the University during the past decade that the members of even comparatively recent classes are as completely out of touch with present conditions in the University as if they had graduated from another institution. It is desired that all graduates of all the classes shall feel their connection with the University as it is and as it will be, and that they shall realize the value of their participation in the history of the State's greatest educational institution and in what has become one of the foremost universities in the country.

In the work of organizing the Alumni it is inevitable that great reliance must be placed upon the class organizations and upon the class secretaries for their assistance in keeping in touch with the members of their respective classes. At the same time, assistance will freely be given by the officers of the University who will undertake the care of the University's record of its graduates.

The completion of the Alumni Hall will be of great advantage both to the Alumni and to the undergraduates. Tangible evidence in stone, standing upon the grounds of the University, will then bear witness to the intimate connection between the University and its graduates. It is

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to be regretted that the fund for the erection of this building has so far grown so slowly; it is confidently expected, however, that when its purposes and advantages are better understood, its support will be more vigorous and its progress more rapid.

GRADUATES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Henry Hay, '94, visited the University in September. Mr. Hay is manager of the Witwatersrand Deep mine near Johannesberg, South Africa. Mr. Hay has under him a number of University of California men. J. E. McGuire, '98, is acting manager of the mine in Mr. Hay's absence. P. M. Newhall, '98, is engaged in construction work. Others connected with this mine are R. L. Brewer, '94, head surveyor; Lloyd Womble, '02, mine foreman; C. H. Aspland, '02; Fred Lowell, ex-'97; and H. G. Hotchkiss, '03.

A number of U. C. men are in the South African gold fields. William Mien, ex-'00, Karl F. Hoffman, '99, Jack Hoffman, '01, John W. Craig, '99, and Harry H. Webb, '75, are in the Rand district. Mr. Mien is general manager for the Robinson Gold Mining Company. Mr. Webb is consulting engineer for the Consolidated Gold Fields. Karl and Jack Hoffman are on the staff of Messrs. Ekstein and are located at Johannesberg. Jack Craig is manager for the Tudor Gold Mining Company. George Hoffman, '95, is consulting engineer to A. Goerz of Johannesberg.

The California men have formed an Alumni Society of which Percy M. Newhall, '98, is corresponding secretary. The object of the society is to meet and dine at Johannesberg on the eve of the annual football game with Stanford.

OTHER GRADUATE MINERS.

F. M. Simpson, Mining, '99, is in charge of a cyanide plant at Zacuma, Ecuador, South America, for the South

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American Development Company, which is one of the Vanderbilt enterprises.

Professor Christy, Dean of the College of Mining, has received an interesting letter from Ralph T. Mishler, Mining, '05, who has been appointed mine surveyor at Angangula, Estado Micheacan, Mexico. The mine where he is located is over one hundred years old, and has over thirty miles of tunnels and underground workings. In many of them it is impossible to stand erect, as they were originally very small, and besides, are, in some places, partly caved in. Mr. Mishler writes that he spent an entire day going through about one-twentieth part of the mine, and what he covered in that time would equal two average California mines in extent. The mine is situated at a great altitude, and in a very healthful climate.

Mr. Mark Alling, Mining, '03, returned recently from an exploration of the gold fields of Seward Peninsula, in Alaska, which he has made for a New York company. He gave a very interesting account of his experiences, and of the principal geological and economic features of the Seward Peninsula, before the Senior mining students, November 1.

F. A. Gowing, Mining, '03, was on a short visit to the University from Mexico in October. Mr. Gowing is superintendent of a large gold mine near Cienaga de Casal, Sinaloa, Mexico, where he has a large and rich vein opened up by tunnels, and is running a stamp mill,—forty stamps, and a cyanide plant, which is giving excellent results, and a handsome profit to the owners.

Ernest Denicke, '99, has returned from a successful experience as a mining engineer in South Africa and Madagascar, to direct some development work near Oroville, California.

Judge Curtis H. Lindley, ex-'74, is giving a special course of lectures on Mining Law for the benefit of the

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Seniors in the College of Mining. They are illustrated with lantern slides showing the diagrams and models that were used in the principal lawsuits which are matters of record.

Judge Lindley is the author of a work on Mining Law which is considered a standard authority on the subject.

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University Chronicle

VOL. VIII MARCH, 1906 No. 3

THE SPIRIT OF THE SOUTH.[1]

EDWIN A. ALDERMAN.

I am glad to be here to-day, and I appreciate heartily the privilege, the distinction, and the courtesy of this hour. California has always been a magic word to me, redeeming from dullness by its very name the geography of my childhood, and, by the lure of its history and the majesty of its achievement, quite captivating the imagination of my manhood. Indeed it is difficult for one to speak the language of moderation and restraint, who has traveled from the hills of Virginia to this other ocean, and who stands in the presence of this company of scholars and masters, his fellow-citizens in the republic of letters, and under such a sky and in such an air as one could hope to find only here or in old Hellas itself. I bring the greetings and affectionate good will of the University of Virginia to the University of California. They are blood kin, the one to the other. The University of Virginia was the first deliberate gift of democratic idealism and human enthusiasm embodied in the mind and heart of a seer and a prophet to this nation and to this age. The University of California is the triumphant resultant of that same idealism and enthusiasm, incorporated as a working principle into the units of democracy, able to win their own way and to set up their own temples wherever they will. The dream of Thomas Jeffer-

[1] Charter Day address, March 23, 1906, by the President of the University of Virginia.

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son, which was the dream of a frontiersman standing upon the western line of American life, was hindered of its realization in the Old Dominion by civil and domestic tragedy, and has come to realization here in this free and favored land, ignorant of defeat and unhindered by economic misconception. I bring you greetings from homogeneous Virginia to cosmopolitan California. Although far apart and utterly different, they are yet curiously alike. Virginia is the mother of statesmen and California the mother of states; Virginia, the Old Dominion, which brought to the new world the note of European feeling, and California, the new empire, which must be relied upon to assimilate and educate the eastern world. Virginia is the state that did most to establish the Union, and out of California came the influences that did most to preserve its integrity. Virginia helped mightily to put California in the Union and to give it the American consciousness, and California helped mightily to keep Virginia in the Union and to give to it the modern American spirit. To the thousands of Virginians seated on this coast I have the impulse to bring the affectionate remembrance of the unforgetting old commonwealth, who follows her sons wherever they go with tender and thoughtful eye.

It is my purpose to speak to you to-day of the southern section of our country, made distinctive by inheritance, by isolation, by physical influence in economic history, in order that this region, being better understood, may be better served by the force that would aid in the slow processes of renationalization. Sectionalism as a philosophy, as a creed, or as a passion, has passed out of our life. In those senses sectionalism can never exist again, for steel rails and Pullman cars have beaten us into a unity that not even war and debate could ever have achieved. But there are such things as sections in this republic. The South is a section, the West is a section, and though unlike, they are so curiously interwoven and interrelated as to be twin brothers. One

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is reminded of the story of the old peasant, who after hearing Bishop Howe preach, said to him: "Bishop, I certainly enjoyed your sermon, and I learned something, which I do not always do in sermons." "I am glad to hear it, my good man," said the Bishop; "What did you learn?" "Well," said the old fellow, "I learned that Sodom and Gomorrah were places, and durn me if I ain't been thinking for twenty years that they was husband and wife." The militant Southerner and Southwesterner discovered the West, fought for it, took it, and held it. Thomas Jefferson, George Rogers Clark, and Lewis and Clark were all born within sight of the University of Virginia. Clay, Benton, Polk, Taylor, Houston, Freemont, Atcheson, Denver, and a score of others are Southern names, and however completely the industrial-minded men of the North and East have possessed this land and developed it with splendid energy, and to-day enjoy its usufruct, the South was its foster-mother, and holds its past and might have held its future but for the Civil War, wherein a half million of its sons died instead of coming West. In the great heroic drama of the industrial and educational development of the West, the North, the East, the European peoples have played the giant's part, but the South mothered it in its unconscious and helpless infancy, and stamped it with its temper and its feeling and its modes of thought as mothers do, and when the soldiers of the two sections met in the Western armies it was the impact of brothers.

But, after all, the West is an idea as well as a geographical term. It is a spirit as well as a section; it is a condition as well as a region. Wherever old social conditions are being transformed by the influences of new lands and new ideals and new peoples into new social conditions, that land is also the West in a spiritual sense as truly as if the conditions were reversed. The South is the real West to-day in this large spiritual sense, plus three hundred years of background and tradition. Like a belated army, it is

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just entering upon the conquest of the modern world, and in return for its motherly devotion to the West when motherhood was a fierce occupation the South expects its child grown into a giantess to mother it a little, to help it to a conception of twentieth century Americanism, to aid it in renationalizing its spirit, and to prove to it by noble example that the mighty industrial and material energies of a people whose paths have always been free to run an unimpeded course may be bent to the uses of culture and the development of an efficient, serene, and refined democracy.

The citizen of the South who had reached manhood's estate in 1860, and who is alive to-day, has lived in two worlds. The world of his youth was a rural, conservative, isolated land, without cities or centers of population, clinging to a few central ideas, holding itself proudly aloof from the ferments of modern society, and creating its own dominant social system. It was a land of contrasts and lights and shadows. It was a land wherein a tumultuous love of liberty and of chartered rights existed side by side with human slavery, wherein culture and refinement touched elbows with dense and barbarous ignorance; wherein aristocracy and democracy went arm in arm together for the last time in human history. This system did not produce in any just degree either wealth or letters. It arrested immigration, it branded labor, it minimized inventions, it emphasized the caste feeling, and it set the badge of pauperism upon the schools of the plain people. Yet it did some things remarkably well. It produced an upper class of striking and splendid virtues, out of which issued the smallest but the most alert and powerful political force in Christendom. This force was compact of a stately group of daring and resourceful leaders, so grounded in unflexible public probity that one may search the line of public men of the South from Calhoun to Ben Tillman, inclusive —and the succession is free from personal dishonor or self-seeking, and so weighty in political thinking that Patrick

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Henry and Calhoun may be read with Demosthenes and Burke.

This aristocratic South really trained the democratic union for its ultimate victory over the alien system of thought created by Southern life.

Without the Virginia country, gentlemen, there could have been no Union. It somehow needed the Tennessee pioneer, Andrew Jackson, to awake to power the raw genius in democracy, and the contest over the nature of the Union, forever kept up by Calhoun and his school, put democracy in the way of testing its mettle and of triumphing forever over all save its own evil elements.

That Abraham Lincoln—that splendid, lonely, patient genius of democracy—into whose face as St. Gaudens has carved it in Lincoln Park, in Chicago, with its commonness and plainness and yet with its sublimity and gentleness, one cannot look without seeing the soul of democracy shining there, revealing the true glory of that great common man, and teaching through that melancholy world-face the whole splendid rise of man to soul and mind and spirit, that Lincoln was born in Kentucky—side by side with Jefferson Davis—may be a coincidence, but when one studies the source of his noble strength, its persistence, its comprehensiveness, its touch of utter humanity, he seems indeed to have been bred of that same life that gave to America its race of state builders and pioneers.

It is not too much to say that the American union had almost sprung from the brains and had been maintained by the valor of the arms of these men. Persuasive in speech and masterful in action, these men had a passion for principles and ideas and an intense singleness of aim. They held a creed of life and a theory of government which they believed to be permanent instead of merely transitional, which they desired to establish among men, and they went at their task with a terrible earnestness, undaunted by any thought of ease or comfort or gain or life. What they loved

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and wanted, the stream of tendency the world over was set against and would have none of, and the end came bringing with it "red ruin and the breaking up of laws." It seemed for a while that out of these strivings naught endured but the memory of the upright figures themselves, standing out virile and undismayed against a background of chaos and revolution; but a vision cleared of hot feeling and the short-sightedness of passion may now see more justly along this great perspective. The time had its obvious faults and was doomed to fall before the avatar of modern progress. But there lived in it deep meaning and beauty and historic survival.

Back of metaphysical theories of government, back of primitive methods of controlling savage races and ignorant labor, may be seen the spirit of romanticism, extinct elsewhere in the world, lingering tardily upon the stage with its central note of exaltation of personality above general social progress. Here was the middle age, clinging to the assured past, and doubtful of the uncertain future. Here was the heroic tradition with its attributes of feeling and spontaneity and its stage-setting of affairs and contest and heady enterprise, making its last stand in the new West against efficiency and correctness and form. The cast of this mind was not meditative. Its impulses drove it to enthusiasm and loyalties. Its studies were for delight and ornament and outlook and largeness rather than for inquiry and analysis and creation.

Forehanded, shrewd men, beaked and taloned graspers of the world, were not to be found in this society. Around the fireside the talk did not fall, even in my own boyhood, so much upon the kind of man who forms the syndicate or corners the stock market or who wages the warfare of trade around the world, but rather these questions were asked: "Has he born himself bravely in battle?" "Has he suffered with courage and dignity?" "Has he kept himself free from sordidness?" "Has he kept faith with ideas?"

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This society did not mistrust life, nor tease its soul with introspection, nor harass its spirit with the affairs of the remote. The fine reality, the sweet certainty of life, banished spiritual hunger and shut out the cries of the dwellers of the darkling plain. No man in that air could have written Emerson's address on the "American Scholar"; but where else could Robert E. Lee have flowered into the rose of exquisite and tolerant and stately manhood?

As I perceive the republic to-day working its imperious will among the nations, the feeling comes that the South did the nation a high service by perpetuating this spirit of romanticism and by projecting it into this daemonic body of energy and achievement. An over-nourished, over-specialized, nervous democracy needs the tradition of largeness of life, and the ideal of the general mind kept sane and catholic and human to the core. And it is for our soul's good, I believe, that we breathe deeply of that old air of love of home and country life, and that, as a nation, we take thought of those conceptions of cultured social life and unfretted leisure first set up in the South.

Whatever force can sweeten and humanize democracy is a good force, and, as we forge forward, I believe we shall hark back with benefit to that inefficient but romantic age, blotted out almost without warning as by the fury of a tempest, with its serene consciousness of self and personal values, such as dignity and life held second to honor; that gameness in the blood; that grand manner; that archaic pride of honorable descent; that steadfastness to ideas though they lead to ruin; that balancing power of conservatism and reverence; that mingling of the simplicity of the shepherd with the pride of the king; and above all that investment of womanhood with sacredness and charm as with a shield, so that the gentle women of the South were ladies after a fashion so rare in this world that they had power to make homes so thronged with fine feelings and good manners that it was good to be born in them and to live one's

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days in them and to make a peaceful end in their quiet shelter.

Such was the happier side of the world of the youth of the man who was young and hopeful when he and his system passed into the grip of fate in the battle-summer of 1861. The land of his middle life and of his old age is three hundred years distant from the land of his youth. It is a raging, uncharted, industrial democracy, fretted with problems of free labor, free schools, strange portents of wealth, and new phases of racial adjustment.

Only the great spirits of the world have the strength to pass happily from one era to another. The strand of every new age is lined with the wrecks of earnest high-souled men who had not this strength. The clearest hero of our American life to me is not the man of the Revolution, not the pioneer of the West, but the man of the South who had just reached manhood when the Civil War fell upon his land, who went through its storm with steadfastness and courage, who returned in the ashes of defeat to adjust himself in silence, in grimness and in dignity to a world of which he had not dreamed.

He did not complain, he did not whine, he did not beg for aid, he did not cower before misunderstanding. He acted as the strong act. He waited and worked. He set in the front of his consciousness the large problem of preserving the traditions of his race and his breeding.

He did not always act philosophically and academically, but he acted strongly, and I take off my hat to him with fresh pride of race and fresh belief in the dignity of human life, as he walks the streets of every Southern town to-day—white-haired now and passing out of the green of life—but with his heart unpoisoned with hate or revenge, his spirit young and sweet and hopeful, freed of hindering tradition and the curse of slavery; and with his devotion to his whole country, which no power now can ever break or rend, as clear and high as was his romantic ardor for the

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meteor flag which his courage advanced so high and so far.

That those of us born in a later day live in an age of waning intolerance, of industrial power and educational desire, is due to this man, and it is a poor, spiritless American, wherever he may be, from Maine to California, who does not render to him the tribute of his admiration and his love, as you have so graciously done with your generous applause.

For forty years the South was practically another nation, building its social order on the basis of an inherited economic misconception. For another forty years it has been striving to retain its best traditions, its idealism and its simplicity, to recover the industrialism in commerce and education which it had lost, and to achieve nationalization in politics and liberalism in opinion. The South has regained the *spirit* of industrialism with which it started in the early days. Many details remain to be worked out, but the spirit is here. I see it in the ideals of our youth. I hear it in their speech. Their ambitions reflect it, their dreams move about it. Twenty years from now the old patriarchal South will be a fierce industrial region. By industrialism I do not mean commercialism. Commercialism is a mere sordid theory of life. Industrialism is the scientific mastery of the raw material and its wise distribution according to the laws of trade. Thus considered, industrialism is a mighty and moral part of the movement of society. When the practice of industrialism catches up with the spirit, politics will be nationalized and thought liberalized in the South, for the economic structure of society is largely responsible for its ideals.

Our real problem, therefore, is to try to industrialize our society, without commercializing its soul. I wonder if the thing is possible?

A nation's progress is measured by the distance it has traveled as well as by the point it has reached. There is no such tragic story of ruin and exhaustion in the world

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as the story of the South from 1860 to 1880. In 1860 the South possessed 44 per cent. of the wealth of the nation, or five billion and a half of dollars. In ten years it had lost 60 per cent. of that sum, and if one may count the invalidism and death of 300,000 men and the emigration of 2,500,000 people it had lost all.

There is no such story of resiliency and renaissance as the story of the South since 1880. I ask your attention to these statistics:—

	1880.	1890.
Capital invested in cotton mills	$21,000,000	$225,000,000
Value of cotton crop	313,000,000	680,000,000
Capital in manufactures	257,000,000	1,500,000,000
Value of manufactured products	457,000,000	1,750,000,000

Six thousand industrial enterprises started in one year —1906.

The South has changed the emphasis of its thought from personality to social and industrial progress. It has made the change that every country makes that passes from the patriarchal to more complex forms of life. Its insistence is to be upon community effort, upon civic progress, upon general well-being rather than upon individualism. It has entered for good or ill upon its probation as a member of the modern world. It has found that civilization is an economic as well as an ethical fact, and by this discovery has insured its dominance as a center of industry for the future. It has seen the dignity and value of childhood and of the common man to the general life. It has shifted its social center of gravity from the cathedral and the courthouse to the schoolhouse and the university.

It is still conservative and idealistic. It still believes in God, reads Walter Scott, and votes the democratic ticket, a trinity of somewhat unequal virtues, I must confess; and it does this without fear of punishment—or hope of reward. It is still fortunate in the raw material of its citizenship, whether it issues out of old stocks, sobered and dignified by

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endurance and suffering, or out of the ranks of the plain people who inherit the English consciousness. Its cry is for men to help it realize its highest self in life and law in the spirit of the modern world. How shall the charm and lovableness of the old be blended with the vigor and freedom of the new?

The supremest need of Southern education, after all is said, is, in my judgment, the influence in its life of a few really great institutions of learning. When I say great, I mean great and strong, and modern and beautiful, and ample, and sufficient, and not just patient and devoted, and earnest, and enthusiastic. There is needed something so great and strong and effective that new ideals are set and new conceptions of knowledge given to vast bodies of people. As a stunting inheritance from days of want and poverty we have been accustomed to the use of small means for great objects, but the thing is impossible. Industrial efficiency and patriotic scholarly-mindedness are the popular belief begot of knowledge of things our life cries out most for. The engineer, the business man, the scholar, and the men who think are the men we want. The university must breed them. I mean by the engineer and the business man, roughly, a man who may be relied on to clean a city, or build a bridge, or erect a factory, or build a public building, or beautify a park, or mold and conquer nature in any form. I mean by the scholarly-minded man, the man who observes closely, who is satisfied with the whole truth and nothing less, and who is intellectually sincere. It does not matter what his profession may be—lawyer, doctor, preacher, broker, banker. He is a man of old-time fire and strength and serenity, who thinks with his brain, not with his feelings. His thought is for the future and not for the past alone. He cannot be made afraid. He cannot be cajoled. He cannot be starved. He thinks without haste, and is master of his own fate.

I mean by the patriotic man, the man who wants to have

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a hand in the building of things ever better and better about him; he sees the plain man at his task and the child coming up into life, and cities unbuilt, and lands untilled, and multitudes of both races groping about in a circle of necessity and night, and would shed light and hope about them.

It is idle to deny that such men will control society sooner or later. It is they who must give it its form, its direction, its permanence, its beauty. Agitation for better things unsustained by such men is mere foam on the lazy sea of public opinion. Democracy unsteadied by such forces is not a glorious optimism but an unsubstantial dream.

The world is interested, and I am glad it is, in the two great institutions at Hampton and Tuskegee for the training of the backward race. The universities and colleges of the South are great experiment stations for the training of the forward race. These institutions have the largest opportunities for service of any in America, and out of them must come men who will see clearly and will not lose patience, and who will act, and who have faith in the people.

The Southern boy of this generation has found himself at last in American life, and made himself at home at the moment when the republic has most need of his tempered strength. He is a fine, hopeful figure, this Southern boy whom I know so well, of strong, high political instincts, facing tardily a fierce industrialism, and a new democracy with its grandeurs and temptations, his ambitions and dreams moving about them and yet holding fast through the conservatism in his blood to the noble concepts of public probity and scorn of dishonor.

There may be something parochial, but there is also something fine and impressive in the almost Hebraic feeling of the people of the Southern States that their section has something high and precious and distinctive in manhood and leadership to contribute to American civilization. It cannot be mere boasting, so runs their dream, that it is

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the logical right of their land to bring forth out of her travail and her agony something fair and good of her own likeness and pattern, the old refined gold which disaster and defeat could not tarnish, beaten by fiercer, freer civic forces into finer and subtler form.

The spirit of his fathers, brave and steadfast men who held firm and did not compromise, ought to be in him and shall be in him. Sordidness and commercialism will not wholly submerge him and wear away his fineness. He will love honor more than life, and loyalty more than gold. A worldly modern, a clear-eyed man breathing the breath of freedom, he will reach men's hearts and he will control men's wills not by machinery, but by the strength of integrity and sincerity and their faith in his words. And so when the age of moral warfare shall succeed to the age of passionate gain getting; when blind social forces have wrought some tangle of inequality and injustice, of hatred and suspicion; when calculation and combination can only weave the web more fiercely; when the whole people in some hour of national peril shall seek for the man of heart and faith, who will not falter nor fail, in the sweet justice of God, hither they shall turn for succor as they once turned to a simple Virginia planter to free them from a stupid King and a stubborn Parliament across the seas.

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THE CONDITION AND NEEDS OF THE UNIVERSITY.[1]

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

The University is now completing its forty-sixth year of continuous activity as an institution of the higher learning, and this day signalizes the thirty-eighth anniversary of its existence as a State University. It will not be considered amiss if I use the occasion to review briefly the financial condition of the institution and frankly state its needs. I shall use chiefly the figures of the completed accounts of the year 1904–05.

The total property of the University in conservative estimate is now about seven and three-quarters millions, of which somewhat over three and a half millions constitute its endowment. Harvard's endowment is about sixteen millions, and it also receives some $800,000 in tuition fees (an item denied to us by our free tuition), which if capitalized denotes a further endowment of sixteen to twenty millions.

Our net receipts for the year, including monies for buildings and gifts for endowments, somewhat exceeded a million one hundred thousand dollars. Of this 49 per cent. came from the State, 32 per cent. from private gifts and income of endowments. The large expenditures on the Hearst Mining Building are not yet included in this or any other of our figures.

[1] Address at the Charter Day exercises, March 23, 1906.

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Deducting from the million one hundred thousand, mentioned above, the amounts going to capital rather than to income, we find the gross income to be somewhat over $800,000. Of this, $308,000 is the result of the 2-cent tax, $100,000 the annual outright appropriation of the State, $8,500 State appropriations for agriculture, $40,000 United States Government contribution, $201,000 net income from investment, and $71,000 gifts for current use.

Deducting the amounts assigned to permanent improvements, administration, the $25,000 belonging to the Wilmerding School, and the $42,000 for maintenance of the Lick Observatory, etc., there remains for the educational work at Berkeley approximately $500,000. Herein lies the crux of our difficulty. The amount is far too small for the kind of work we are trying to do. We have too much sail for our hull. It means $175 for the education of each student, a figure far below the experience of other universities, which expend $250 to $450 per student. It means overcrowded classes taught by underpaid professors. In the year of California's greatest prosperity the University is suffering its acutest poverty. This is certainly not intended, and reasonable indication that it could not be intended may be found in the fact that a university supported by all the families of the State pays its teachers much less than our sister university supported by the bounty of a single family. Most of our buildings are outgrown, overcrowded, ill-equipped, flimsy, and altogether unworthy the name of the State they herald; but all that is of small matter as compared with starving the men upon whom the whole vitality of the institution depends. We are paying instructors, who have added to their college course three or more years of graduate study and several years of experience in teaching, less than $100 a month, and expect them to provide the very bread of life to our students.

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The mechanism of the higher education as it adjusts itself more and more to the direct practice of life is becoming more expensive. The modern equipment of instruction, for instance, in the various branches of engineering is out of all relation to the demands of the old class-room in literature which was satisfied with sundry benches and a map of Greece, or that in mathematics with forty feet of blackboard and a box of crayons. We spent last year on agriculture $82,000, a sum equalling about one-fifth of all the money available for all the other departments at Berkeley. And yet the variety of the demands and the millions at stake claim double that amount, and we should not begrudge it, if we had it.

The time has now come,—it is here to-day,—when this University has a right to ask of the community a radical amendment of its condition; it is a right grounded in the service it has proved itself capable of rendering in multifold ways to the community; it is a right established in its position at the gateway of the West, in its relation to the State whose name it bears, in its association with the community's prosperity of every form, whether begotten of mine or railway, field or market-place.

It has a right to appeal to the community at large; its needs far exceed any present possibilities of the treasury of the State. The State is substantially doing all that it can be fairly expected to do. More than half its revenue is to-day absorbed in the maintenance of education. The State was obliged to refuse us last year an Agricultural Building, the need of which was so patent that no man in any wise informed could question it, a need that glares upon us stronger every day that passes; but, generous as was the will, the money was not there to give. And yet we need six other buildings to-day, practically as much as we need this. The State will steadily increase its support with the years, but this increase lags upon the swift advance of our needs. The way of relief is pointed out by the honored names of

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California families ineffaceably inscribed upon the enduring structure of the University by deeds of beneficence which yield their unerring output of blessing to the State as the years and generations pass, for time without forecast of end,—names such as Hearst, Doe, Sather, Flood, Mills, Reese, Bacon, Harmon, Crocker, Herzstein, Tompkins, Whiting, Spreckels, Lick, and a score of others. Every distinguished California family may well have satisfaction in associating its name with the higher service of a State in which all have such pride and under the shelter of whose laws they have enjoyed so large an opportunity.

It is one thing to accumulate skillfully, but a totally distinct exercise to distribute wisely what has been gathered. The very common method of distribution by the haphazards and litigations that follow death, or by entailing upon heirs possessions they were better without, will not always appeal to sensible men. There must be a recognizable comfort in the assurance that after one's life is done the accumulations of that life go on to do good and not harm. There is no form of the assurance quite so certain as that which the university can give. No form of human institution touches more widely the various needs of human society. No form has equal guarantee of permanence. Nowhere has a fund equal assurance of perpetual administration as a trust, especially when the university is incorporated into the body of a state. Every separate fund is now with us merged in a general investment pool, and given thereby the insurance of the combined millions; the dividend upon all the monies in the pool amounted last year to 5.8 per cent., an income made possible under the most rigid limitations to first-rate mortgage security by the freedom from taxation. I believe confidently that the only reason why more have not availed themselves of this opportunity is that we have not told them of it.

In my first report (1900) I enumerated fifteen pressing needs of the University; nine of these have since that time

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been fairly met. Accepting the omen as good, I proceed now to state the present needs of the institution in terms of opportunity for private benefaction.

We need a million dollars for a University Hospital,—that is, half a million for building and half a million for endowment. Until we have this, our Medical School will not be able to make such provision for the development of medical education as to save our young people the necessity of crossing the continent, and perhaps the ocean, in order to obtain a proper training. Seventy-five thousand to one hundred thousand dollars will endow a Professorship of the type of the Mills Professorship of Philosophy, or the Flood Professorship of Commerce, or the Tompkins Professorship of Oriental Languages. Twenty thousand dollars will endow a lectureship which will bring some distinguished man annually to Berkeley to lecture on a designated subject. Ten thousand dollars will endow a Fellowship, by means of which a graduate student can fit himself for a career as a scholar and investigator. We ought to have to-day not less than thirty such Fellowships. We want an endowment for the University Press. Special publication funds in special subjects such as Hebrew, Greek, Medicine, Astronomy, California History, etc., may be provided in amounts from twenty thousand to twenty-five thousand dollars. But the University Press should not be named as a whole, like, for instance, the Clarendon Press, after one man, unless an endowment of half a million were provided. We greatly need funds for the support of the Library. Mr. Charles F. Doe has already made a bequest of 24 per cent. of his great estate for the building of a Library. The building such as we need will cost not less than a million dollars. Separate book funds for separate departments may well be provided,—thus we need a fund of twenty thousand dollars for California History, twenty-five thousand dollars for Architecture, ten thousand dollars for German, ten thousand dollars for French, etc. We need a loan fund, whose in-

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come can be used to aid needy and deserving students. Any sum that is provided for this purpose can be efficiently used. The creation of special investigation funds of from ten thousand dollars upward will enable professors to undertake special problems involving travel and other expenses. Special funds of ten thousand dollars would be very useful toward this end. There is need of a Model School or Practice School, in which shall be illustrated the best methods of teaching, from the kindergarten to the University. The type of this school is found either in the Blain School at Chicago, or in the Horace Mann School at the Teachers' College, New York. The nucleus of a building would cost thirty-five thousand, but one hundred thousand dollars should be ultimately provided. The school will be in part self-supporting, but a special fund of fifty thousand dollars is desired. An organ for the Greek Theatre would cost ten thousand dollars. The great organ for the permanent Auditorium should cost twenty to twenty-five thousand dollars. The Auditorium itself, which will dominate the whole scheme of the proposed buildings, looking down the present sweep of the Botanical Garden, will cost a million dollars. It can serve also to shelter a School of Music. An endowment of one hundred thousand dollars for a Professorship of Music should be provided, and an endowment for five different assistants, representing the different forms of music. The Campanile, to stand where the tower of the present Library stands, will cost one hundred thousand dollars, a chime therefor ten thousand dollars, a clock, five thousand dollars. Gates at the main entrances of the grounds, such as the one already provided by the wisdom of Mrs. Sather, should cost fifteen to twenty-five thousand dollars each. There should be, beside the one now provided at the Telegraph-avenue entrance, one at Dana street, and others at Center street, University avenue, Euclid avenue, Bonté avenue, and College avenue. Bridges, of which no less than ten are needed on the grounds, range in cost

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from five thousand to thirty-five thousand dollars. Sections of the wall eventually to surround the Campus could be built by individual classes providing, say, three to five thousand dollars. Beside this, there are to be thought of seats on the grounds, chairs in the Greek Theatre, drinking fountains, out-of-door lecture rooms, or loggias. A Gymnasium for the men such as we need would cost four hundred thousand dollars; one for the women students the same amount. A swimming pool for the men students, one hundred thousand dollars, and as much for the women students. Tennis courts, costing from five hundred to one thousand dollars each, are needed. The great Stadium embracing the athletic field will some day be built and has, indeed, its place upon our plans. The estimated cost is three-quarters of a million. A Student Infirmary, where students can be taken care of when ailing as well as when seriously ill, and which should include a Dispensary, would cost one hundred thousand dollars. Twenty-five thousand dollars would supply ample equipment. Beds can be endowed with five thousand dollars each. Maintenance would in part be provided by an annual hospital fee to be paid by all students. The College Observatory must sometime be built on the top of the hill back of the Campus, and for that two hundred and fifty thousand dollars would be a proper sum. A University Commons, as a dining hall for students, will soon be needed when dormitories begin to spring up on the hillsides, and these dormitories each provide a way of beneficence. The great Museum of Archaeology and Anthropology should be built with a central portion costing five hundred thousand dollars. Fifteen or sixteen buildings, each costing from one hundred thousand to two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, are parts of our total plan of building. These are the buildings for Agriculture, Botany, Zoology, a group of three buildings for the Science of Medicine, a building for Commerce and Economics, one for Philosophy and Education, or possibly two buildings closely

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united, a building for Law[1], a Hall of Languages and Literature, a Hall of Fine Arts (where should be housed Architecture, Sculpture, Painting, and Landscape Gardening), laboratories for Chemistry and Physics, a building for Geology and Mineralogy, a building for Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, and one for Civil Engineering. The field is large. There is work enough to do,—but it is work that will be done.

[1] The gift of $100,000 by the widow of Judge John H. Boalt, for a Law Building, was later announced at this meeting.

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THE WHOLE AND THE PARTS IN CALIFORNIA EDUCATION.[1]

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

It were a supererogation to bid teachers of California welcome to the University of California. They are the stockholders of its corporation, the apostles of its evangel, living epistles of its faith, partakers of its vitalizing sacraments, and withal children of the blood. The University is the repository of their standards, their Delphi of the tripod and the oracle, their Mount Zion of the altar and the ark of the covenant, their temple of inspiration and their citadel of refuge. The University is *theirs*,—their unmistakable own, and it belongs to no man to bid them welcome to the gates within which they always and ever have their spiritual place and home. As an administrative institution however it has its formal regulations under the supreme control of a public trust, the Regents of the University of California, and under the guidance in educational policy of a faculty known as the Academic Senate. Speaking for both these bodies in terms of the government formal and carnal, I beg to assure you all with warmth and joy of heart that every gate is flung open and unhinged, that every one of you is entered and matriculated,

[1] Address delivered before the California Teachers' Association during their annual meeting, in the Harmon Gymnasium, December 27, 1905.

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that every subject you represent is fully accredited. If there is any form of action or of expression I can adopt which will give you to feel beyond peradventure that here on our grounds, in our buildings, in our homes, and in our hearts you are genuinely *at home,* I beg you will assume the act performed and the word said, for so it is our will to do. Making yourself at home means not waiting to be entertained, not waiting to be asked, but asking for what you want, unless you happen to see it,—in which case you take it.

That the results of this Berkeley meeting may tend toward the spiritual uniting in work and purpose of all the educational forces of this State is the one devout prayer flamed heavenward from the fireside-altar of the University, around which we have gathered. And these are the petitions of the single prayer: that we may see eye to eye, that we may join hand in hand, that we may sink all separate interests of locality, subject, and institution in one united movement against the common foe whose hordes fill all the plain, flaunting their haughty standard of the triple device: ignorance, lawlessness, and the sordid view.

The community we live in, represented by the governmental form of the State of California, is classed among the historic societies of human kind as a *progressive* community. Its claim to that classification is earned by sharing with other like-titled communities the larger hope regarding its successors. It desires to place in their hands the means of a larger realization of life. It desires to leave things better than it found them. It means that its children shall have better opportunity of living their lives for all they are worth, than it had itself. It has assumed this progressive attitude because it has learned from an experience of the widely varying effectiveness of individual lives in a free field, how plastic a thing a life-opportunity is. The picture of a widowed mother toiling with her hands and denying herself in the retirement of a plain, unnoticed

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life, that her son may have an education toward a fuller life than hers, sustained and amply rewarded for all privations by that larger hope for the boy established in a sure faith that he will have a free chance in the world,—one picture like that, typical, as everybody knows, of countless cases over the face of the land, brings the vindication and the crown of glory to our system of free democracy as a school of human progress.

In no community of the world to-day is the consciousness of individual freedom keener than in this State. Nowhere do men feel within them more certainly the self-determining instinct,—freedom to range in the broad elbow-room, power and opportunity to set things agoing, to save or to slash, to laud or to vituperate, to make or to break things in general or their own substance and careers in particular according to their own seemeth-good, under crystalline clear conviction that they and their chance are their own in fee simple, and that the risk and the prize are theirs and nobody's else. Under the dome of the universe they stand erect and are not afraid.

From out a soil joined of this individualistic independence and the progressive idealism familiar and akin thereto, has arisen the California zeal for public schools. People will be found in the towns and districts to differ in their opinions not infrequently nor dispassionately concerning the location of a schoolhouse, the choice of a teacher, or the arrangement of a curriculum, but if a man opposes schools and education altogether, he is not ranked as a good citizen. There is apparently no subject upon which our singularly alert and reasonably controversial population is so nearly agreed as upon the desirability of maintaining education. The best buildings in our country towns are the schoolhouses, and there is nothing for which the people tax themselves so willingly as for the maintenance of schools. It would not be difficult to tell why they do this. The considerations we have just now been traversing lead directly up

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thereto. They want their children to have the best possible chance of making their lives effective to the full; they want the communities in which they live to move ahead. This is clear enough, but who can tell us just why they think the present thing we call education will bring this about? Some one may say, they don't think at all. Indeed they do; some of them a great deal, most of them more or less, and only a sodden few take it all for granted. But the amazing thing is how much faith they have in us teachers, faith that after all we know what it is all about,—more faith sometimes than we deserve; for are you sure that we are perfectly clear in our own minds how our teaching and the things we teach, how all this mechanism and routine of grades and courses, of multiplication tables and paradigms, of textbooks and laboratories, bear upon the distant but desired result? Probably it is just as well we should not be always thinking about this, and better that we go right ahead and do plain, faithful teaching, but sometimes we are bound to stop and think, else we should soon be absorbed in running a ticking clock robbed of its face and hands. How easy it is for us humans to relapse into sleek satisfaction with seeing the wheels go round, and forget entirely the output!

The plain is dotted with schoolhouses; libraries, apparatus and laboratories are within, such as the old red schoolhouse never dreamed of; teachers are there in platoons and march to associations by battalions and regiments; five normal schools and various departments of education and persuasive prophets at multitudinous institutes join in conveying the mysteries of the subtle teaching art to throngs of eager neophytes; colleges and universities widen their doors to every craft and science,—metaphysics, astrophysics, football and irrigation; the presses at Sacramento clank and perspire with reams of textbook paper; and superintendents and trustees and county boards and editors and teacher-agents and book-agents and principals and col-

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lege presidents fill all the foreground with their dignity, all the hallways with their wares, all the platforms with their kindly persons, and all the air with their good advice. And what is it all about?

It is all about a congeries of processes apparently held together by the mystical title of education, a mass whose shapelessness is only veiled a little by the procrustean violence of high organization and the rigours of traditional prejudice, a mass resisting reduction to the form and order of a science, but submitting to partial regulation and measurement at the hand of various sciences, a great mass of things human seen in a glass darkly, and refusing like the circle to be squared, or like the products of man's free spirit to be fenced about.

And yet in spite of all this there is one principle that gives unity to the mass, one thread that tracks the labyrinth. All education deals with growing organisms and seeks to provide their growth with healthy food, so that they may be strong to resist disease and unfold their highest measure of effectiveness for good in human society. This is what the kindergarten is doing; this is what the university is busy about. There is no difference in substance between the work of the grades, the high school, the trade schools, the university. It is their subject-material that unifies them, their subject-material of human lives. The difference between them lies again not in the things they teach, but in the different degrees of maturity represented by the pupils they deal with. Have we sometimes forgotten this? Have we heard of promotion from grade to grade, or assignment of new-come pupils to classes being determined according to pages of textbooks covered? Have we heard of pupils kept back a grade because in the other school they had been taught in another order or by another method or terminology. But grading is solely a matter of maturity, of capacity to do in the future, not of acquisition in the past,—if it be true that education is the

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guiding of growth. Many a pupil has lost his life-fibre and afterwards drowned himself in a puddle of laziness from being graded down to his formal learning. Many a grade has been swamped with poor material of pupils who have covered ground but have not grown to new tasks. Teachers often worry because pupils have forgotten what they learned the term before, instead of drawing encouragement from observation of their gathered strength to learn new things, which they shall again forget. What a good thing it would be if some of our teachers could swap a piece of their conscientiousness for a big chunk of faith!

And now again,—have you ever heard of college faculties insisting that certain subjects and certain definite portions or apparitions of them should be learned before a student could be enrolled to enjoy the stimulus of a college course? I am sure that most of this is delusion and some of it approximately a fraud. What we must be looking for in a college is the presence of students who are able to do the work, and a solicitude as to what particular studies or pages of books gave them that ability, represents scarcely more than an antiquarian zeal. It must be admitted that there are courses of study in the university which unrelentingly demand certain prerequisite studies; thus, it is impossible to proceed with engineering work without solid foundation in mathematics; but with all such apparent exceptions it remains that the all-important preparation for college courses inheres in the acquired capacity to understand and to work, and in the maturer intellectual and moral grasp derived from the rigorous pursuit of a well-ordered high-school course. A study is an advanced study, whatever its name or however near the beginning of the book, when it is pursued by an advanced mind. No amount of philosophy studied in the adolescent years can be regarded as an offset for the philosophy of the senior or graduate years of the university. There is no study which it is too late to begin in the university years, but, if so begun,

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it will be a radically different exercise with different effect as compared with the pursuit of the same study four to six years earlier in life. The practical convenience of the organization of instruction and the practical necessities of articulation between the available courses of instruction in the grades, the high-school and the college will always demand attention, but I am convinced that they have in the past occupied too much the foreground, and that the future arrangement of preparations and prerequisites will pay much more heed to the real thing, the substantial intellectual maturity of the pupil himself.

So then we can after all face again the impudent query that sprang up in our way: "What is it all about?" by telling what it is all *for*. And this is our answer: the grades and the high-schools and the trade schools and the normal schools and the universities and all their attendant mechanism are *for their pupils*, and nothing else. And we think it well to affirm this at least once a year, lest we forget. They are for the young folks of California. They do not exist that somebody may get a position, or somebody's daughter, or the graduate of some institution. They do not exist primarily for the propagation of any subject or interest or body of learning, however easy it is for one who has become a master in such a subject to think he has been appointed special attorney therefor. It is the children, however, who claim the attorney's protecting skill. The schools, furthermore, do not exist for anybody's textbook or anybody's printing-press, not even the State's. There are too many textbooks already; they get between the pupil and the life of the teacher; they get between poverty and the chance of an education. I wish their use might be reduced to the minimum, instead of extended by the device of supplementary reading. School libraries and public libraries, I am glad to see, are coming to our aid with more enspiriting reading than textbooks generally afford.

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The plain perception that the schools of every sort and all that belongs to them exist for the sole good of our children ought to bring the blush of shame to every thought of using any of their means or strength in the service of any sort or description of private aims. A public official who uses his opportunity of proximity to the public treasury to take public money and buy himself a suit of clothes therewith has clearly betrayed the trust reposed in him by the public and has stolen. Is it not just as clear that the school official who uses the opportunity of his office to secure a position in the schools for a friend or relative of his because of the friendship and not because the person is certainly the best available,—is it not clear this official has betrayed a trust? He has used a public opportunity for private advantage. He has mixed up two things that must be kept apart,—public and private. And it is so delusively easy to argue with one's self that the public and private interest chanced to be in your one case concurrent, that it is best to avoid entirely all cases where public and private could in any way become confused.

Politics and school affairs are both forms of public activity, but *they* cannot be mixed in any proportions whatsoever, without noxious and fetid product. Politics is good in its place, but it has no place in or near the schools. It will take the children's bread, and give it unto dogs. It ought to be possible for a progressive State like California to devise a way by which superintendents and other school officials can be spared the necessity of seeking their places or continuance therein by means of the political canvas, convention, and cabal. If there were no other reason weighing against the present method than the uncertainty of tenure connected with the fluctuating chance of the political party upon whose ticket the candidate is named, that would be enough to condemn it.

We cannot expect to command the service of professionally equipped men for our superintendencies, unless oppor-

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tunity for a consistent professional career is offered; in other words, we cannot expect to get as much as we deserve from the salaries we pay. If the revision of the fundamental law present too cumbrous an obstacle, why cannot the party organizations be induced to leave the nomination of a common candidate to a committee of leading, disinterested citizens selected either by the party organizations, or by a school convention of citizens assembled without regard to party? This would not be a new experiment. It has been tried and will work. The political conventions do not really care for the opportunity of nominating; it is there, and they use it, generally as a make-weight, to reëstablish local balance on the ticket. The office was intended however for the good of the children of the State.

These various things I have stated merely as corollaries to my main proposition that the unity of our educational system inheres in its fundamental purpose as the nurturer of human growth; to that main proposition I now return. The subjects to be taught and the methods of teaching them, throughout the entire system from kindergarten through university, are to be determined in accordance with this fundamental purpose of the whole. The progressive changes in subject and method are to be determined by the progress of growth in the same individual and by the personal needs and adaptability of different individuals. There is no place in the system for the hanging-on of ornaments; the nose-rings of profitless learning, however dignified and decorative, cannot be expected in the repertory; incidental crumbs of some glittering subject one thinks he "would like to know a little something about" are mostly variegated wampum to hang about the neck and play with, but not good to eat.

In the teaching work of the system as a whole there is in reality no higher, no lower; there are only older growths to deal with, and younger growths. The demand for the highest teaching skill is more likely to be imperative with

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the younger than the older. We are all hoping to see the choices between teaching in the high schools and in the grade schools directed by self-recognized differences of taste and talent on the part of the teacher, rather than by chance or compulsion, or difference in remuneration. It is depressing to hear a would-be teacher say: "I know I'm not a very good student, but all I want is a grammar school certificate." Each grade from the elementary schools through the university has its own work to do and its own way of doing it. It is a dangerous thing grossly to imitate and crudely to borrow from one group of grades to another. The high-school, for instance, has not gained by adopting the high differentiations of the sciences as recognized in the university. Physics, chemistry, geology, physical geography should be presented in the high school, at any rate at first, as one science called if you like, "natural philosophy," or not called at all. The differentiation will come soon enough. It takes a big man to hold them together. Specialization in teaching has, I am convinced, already gone too far in the high school. It is after all rather a fad imitated from the university. A teacher is a better teacher for moving about occasionally among the subjects; a given day's teaching is likely to be better if it includes two quite distinct subjects. I am quite expecting to see the fad of specialization pushed down into the grades. We already have ominous signs in the drawing teacher, the music teacher, etc. In my opinion they both are bad, except as general supervisors. Every grade teacher, certainly in the higher grades, should both draw and sing. It is best for a child in the lower grades to learn everything, for the time being, from one teacher. Singing ought to come in twice a day in the upper grades, four or five or more in the lowest; drawing might also be regarded as fairly omnipresent.

If there were a franker recognition of this fact that each part of the system has its own way of doing its work,

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this way being settled for it by the relative maturity of the pupil, there would be less quarreling about formal questions of subject and curriculum, to which there are in reality no answers. For example, there is the furious question: at what time should we begin with the natural sciences? The answer to this question is: we should not begin with them at any time; we should begin with the study of nature as our "out-of-doors" and outer environment, and gradually, as mind requires it, adopt the form of science, transmuting nature-study imperceptibly into natural science. Whether you pretend to do this or not, whether you think you are doing this or not, this is what you practically will be doing; for the fruitfulness of all your effort will be relentlessly measured by the preparedness of the pupil's mind. Science is science, whether it be humanistic science or natural science. It is a point of view, an attitude of approach, a form of test leading to control; it is the same whether the subject-matter be natural or human. The problem is: how rapidly shall scientific treatment of material be introduced, whether that material be literature, language and history, or animal life, plant life, earth structure. The study of nature should begin as early as the study of the products of human society and proceed *pari passu* with it. In both these fields what is called in the later years "research" or "investigation" responds to what is called "observation" in the earlier years; and the "science" of the later years responds to the "sympathetic understanding" of the earlier. The sympathetic understanding of nature must at the beginning take on the guise of human interest. This but repeats the experience of the childhood of human thought in the history of the race. The study of out-doors must begin with what immediately affects the life of the pupil, and in agricultural communities it will readily assume the form of observation and sympathetic understanding of the great life-problem of man in his struggle with growing things to win bread and livelihood

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therefrom. This same study develops at the top into the science of agriculture. To begin the teaching of science, however, with proclamation of laws, principles, and theories which have no relation to any facts or cravings in the pupil's mind is to fill a man's closet with clothes-hangers, who has no clothes to wear.

If consideration for the healthy growth of the pupil is the thing which governs our teaching, we shall evidently not be engaged in sawing off anybody's legs to fit any particular bed, or in coiling anybody up or stretching anybody out to fit into any particular box. The grammar school is not to be regarded as a "fitting-school" for the high school, nor the latter for the university. Each will have a completeness within itself so that those who discontinue school at the end of either may have found therein a certain preparation for life; but the completeness will consist not in the claim that they are completely grown, but that they are well grown as far as they have gone. In the long run it will be found that the best man-growing course in either of these schools will be one that will enable a pupil to go farther if he wants to, and on the other hand that the best preparation the next higher school can desire is a life-growth fitting a man for tasks farther on, whether those be the tasks of life or school,—for education itself is life, and the luring out of more abundant life.

Now many will be offended at my doctrine, some who are concerned about requirements for admission, some, at the other extreme, who are concerned to introduce what they call more practical studies into the schools. Both groups, I submit, are still entangled in the conception of education as the getting of knowledge instead of the growth into power.

Fellow-teachers, I have been traversing well trodden ground; I have told again an old story. But it is a story that holds within it the sacred charter of our guild, the bond of our unity. We are not purveyers of knowledge,

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but apostles of health,—of health which is the perfect law of growth in all created things, of health which bespeaks the normal order of the universe and the spirit of goodness in which the worlds were founded. Our work is allied with the righteousness at the heart of things, and though foes arise on either hand and disappointments marshal themselves before us, we will not be dismayed, for they that be with us are more than they that be against us.

"Truth forever on the scaffold,
Wrong forever on the throne;
Yet the scaffold sways the future,
And behind the dim unknown
Standeth God, within the shadow,
Keeping watch above his own."

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ARBITRATION.[1]

BERNARD MOSES.

In coming here to discuss arbitration, I do not understand that we all come as champions. We have come to reason together concerning an institution that is as old as human society. If institutions or social practices have existed for centuries, it is not because men have gathered themselves together to talk about them; they have been maintained because of fitness for their conditions. The race has adhered to them because of their use. They have often appeared marking stages in a process of social improvement. Slavery came, undoubtedly, in many cases as a betterment of an antecedent state. When the barbarian chief conceived the idea of holding his captives as slaves, instead of killing them, he began an important social reform. For ages in many lands slavery was a conspicuous factor in an *improved* social order. But an institution adapted to serve a beneficent purpose may be superceded in a later stage of social growth by others better fitted to attain such a purpose. Thus in most of the enlightened nations slavery has been outgrown.

The case as it regards war is not greatly different from that of slavery. It is difficult to conceive of conditions more miserable than those of a people, broken up into petty principalities, ruled by jealous chiefs who flourish by oppression and plunder. Under such circumstances the rise

[1] Address delivered at a meeting in the Greek Theatre on Washington's Birthday, 1906.

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of a wise leader who gathers an army and makes real war brings a blessing to the people. He creates a nation out of the hostile possessions of robber-barons. He makes safe the routes of trade; he enforces internal order; and he prepares the way for a dignified national existence and the development of a broader culture. War has lasted through all the ages, not because men have been ignorant of its cruelties and its costs. Generation after generation has appreciated its terrible features; but at times even the wisest have been unable to see any way forward except along its bloody trail. Sometimes a nation appears in war as shaking itself free from entanglements and compromising positions into which it has been led by politicians, or diplomatists, or the zealous instigators of religious antipathies. Sometimes every other possible course would involve a loss of national honor, more precious than human life or the material expenditures of a thousand wars.

There is nothing in our knowledge of the past or in any reasonable anticipations of the future to indicate that war is an antiquated practice. We are not here, therefore, to urge upon this and other nations a pledge of immediate total abstinence, but, on the contrary, to consider how the instrumentalities of peace and reason may be used to remove the minor causes of international friction, and settle international differences that ought not to arouse the nations to hostility. This is the statement of a programme, and not of an ideal. It is possible that the world may at last rise to the height of Isaiah's ideal, and the time come when "nation shall not lift up sword against nation;" yet the realization of this ideal does not lie within the range of our vision. We fashion our plan, therefore, with reference to what may be attained in the present. At the same time, it is clearly seen that, with every point gained in favor of a friendly settlement of disputes between nations, the field of possible international arbitration is extended.

But the movement for extending this field depends on

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the development of an international public opinion and international sympathy. Evidence that such an opinion has come into existence appeared at the close of the war between Japan and Russia. Never before had so many men of so many nations stood together on a question of international importance. There were no conflicting interests. The demand for justice and peace was not obscured by prospects of loss or advantage. The voice of the Western peoples was as the voice of a single nation; and because America was free from foreign entanglements, the head of the state was able to speak for all the nations of the West. Here was a manifestation of an international sentiment, a public opinion that reached round the world. In the development of international sympathy is, moreover, born the desire to settle international disputes without allowing differences to ripen into hostility. The coöperation of Western nations in adjusting their relations with the Orient is apparently destined to draw them into closer sympathy, and make more evident to them that they are of one blood, and have in general common interests that demand the maintenance of peace.

For the development of that international sympathy on which we found our hopes for the future, we need a more complete understanding of the points of view and fundamental ideas of other nations. We, of the modern time, are not greatly unlike the Greeks in regarding foreigners as barbarians. From the foreigner's point of view we are barbarians. I have seen men stoned in my country simply because they were foreigners; and I have been stoned in other countries simply because I was a foreigner. As long as this wall of separation lasts, there will be difficulties in creating a strong desire for a friendly settlement of international disputes. In spite of the enlarged facilities for communication, the great bulk of the inhabitants of every country know only their own type, and never acquire any conception of the stranger's point of view. As the popu-

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lation of this country grows from eighty millions to several hundred millions, our own characteristics will naturally become more and more definitely fixed, and will be impressed more and more rigidly upon us. In this frame of mind the foreigner will appear more definitely a barbarian; and, unless powerful counteracting forces are brought into operation, we shall develop a native type as distinctly American as the Chinese type is distinctly Chinese; and thus between us and other nations sympathy will not abound. Here is our most difficult, but, if thoroughly cultivated, most fruitful, field of missionary work, for with the loss of appreciation of our neighbor's qualities and ideals will disappear most of our interest in friendly compromises and the peaceful settlement of international questions in which he is involved. It only needs a little irritation to keep alert in us the reckless spirit of the genuine barbarian, who counts no costs when his warlike passion is aroused.

There is some reason to expect reforms of a political character to proceed from frontier nations, and to expect that new institutions will be especially acceptable to nations in whom radicalism is not overpowered by conservative traditions. In connection with this view it is significant that the United States and Great Britain have settled the San Juan boundary question, the Alabama question, and the Bering Sea sealing controversy by arbitration. It is also significant that Italy and Argentina, and Argentina and Uruguay, as well as Argentina and Chile, have framed and ratified treaties of arbitration; and that the first nations to make use of the international tribunal at The Hague were American nations. In all of these transactions at least one of the parties belongs to this continent. Introducing new institutions into an old society is like putting new structures into an old city. There is much rubbish to be cleared away. The nations on this continent have less impedimenta than the older nations of Europe or Asia, and ought to have a large part in furthering a movement toward a more reasonable method of settling disputes.

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A large hope for the peaceful progress of society and the extension of arbitration rises from the contemporary drift in world-politics toward making a few nations especially powerful, and relegating all others to positions of international insignificance. No political movement of the present is more suggestive than this of important results for the immediate future. It separates the nations into two clearly marked classes. On the one hand, are those nations that stand by their individual power; on the other, those whose existence is guaranteed by foreign agreement, or by formal acquiescence of the great nations. If Switzerland or Belgium is aggrieved by any one of the leading powers of Europe, war in pursuit of satisfaction is out of the question. But still the small nation of Europe has not an undesirable position. When the great powers guarantee its permanent neutrality, and provision is made for the settlement of its international disputes by arbitration, it enjoys security, and is oppressed by no heavy burden of military expenses. The advantages of this position, to such states as have laid aside their ambition to have a leading part in the play of world-politics, are apparently sufficient to cause the list to be increased; and by thus increasing the list of permanently neutral states, the field of probable war is diminished; it is limited, in fact, to the few great nations that are able and willing to bear the extraordinary burdens of effective military and naval equipment and maintenance.

In the case of the great nations, every decade is adding to the costliness of their war equipment. They are able to see that it is extravagant folly for them to engage in war with one another, except where a very great stake is involved; and that war among them could rarely be fought to a finish. They may see, moreover, that the plan of a balance of power, once used to preserve the peace of Europe, may be employed to preserve the peace of the world; that every consideration urges them to compromise their differences or submit them to an international tribunal.

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Even as an advocate of peace one might reasonably urge large expenditures by the great powers on their armies and navies, in order that their military organization and equipment may become so complicated and expensive in use that they will hesitate to put this arm of their power into operation.

The field of military conflict is diminished in certain instances without technically increasing the area of arbitration. This is done, in the first place, as already indicated, by placing certain small states in a position of permanent neutrality. It is done, in the second place, by causing them to be absorbed into states of imperial dominion. The German states kept central Europe in commotion before Prussia gathered them together and raised over them the flag of the Empire. Internal war was India's normal condition until England extended her authority over the country, and made it clear to the world that the maintenance of the Empire of India meant the preservation of internal peace. The same results have been reached where European powers have come to dominate the less developed peoples of other races. Tribal wars have ceased, and the limits of the field of military conflict have been pushed farther back. The French in Indo-China, the Dutch in Java, the Americans in the Philippines, and the English everywhere have brought peace and order out of war and social chaos.

Occasions will yet come when nations will listen to the call to arms. The war songs will be heard again, and the savage in us, temporarily subdued, will be aroused by the noise of conflict. But we have outgrown the brutal duels of our ancestors, and, through the cultivation of international sympathy and the spirit of fair-dealing, we may hope to outgrow most of the incentives to war. Our remedy is not in law, but in sentiment; in an appreciation of our neighbor's point of view; in a sympathy that transcends the narrow limits of our provincialism and comprehends the race.

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FIRE INSURANCE RATING.[1]

FREDERICK B. KELLAM.

In appearing before you this afternoon to address you upon the subject of fire insurance rating I shall take the liberty of supposing that you are interested in this subject in its relation to commerce generally, rather than as specialists seeking technical information. While some of you, I doubt not, are preparing to enter the fire insurance field, yet I take it by far the larger number intend engaging in other lines of commercial life where, however, fire insurance, even if not the object of your special study at present, will be found so interwoven as to merit your careful consideration.

In its application fire insurance is a tax, the fire insurance companies acting as tax collectors and disbursers, thus distributing over the community at large the enormous waste caused from year to year by fire. A disaster which might financially cripple an individual, or in the case of a conflagration, a town or city, is thus minimized, and the monetary loss of such a disaster distributed over a long period of time and among many people. I wish to emphasize that the loss is distributed,—the destroyed property is not restored,—that is gone forever. Insurance has created nothing, has made good nothing, has simply assessed a very large number of people, whose contributions to the tax are distributed by the companies to a smaller number of people who are sufferers from fire.

[1] An address to the College of Commerce, February 12, 1906.

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Fire insurance as we understand it dates back to the latter part of the 17th century. Immediately after the great fire of London in 1666, ideas began to suggest themselves tending to the protection of individual property owners against loss by fire, and these finally resulted in the organization of several institutions between 1680 and 1720, which for a given consideration, called a premium, offered to pay an agreed sum in the event of the destruction by fire of certain described property, or to repair it if damaged. In the case of several of these institutions the amount to be paid by the property owner (the premium) was in proportion to the losses sustained by all the policy holders, and this form of insurance, called mutual insurance, is still practiced. In 1720 the first joint stock fire insurance companies were organized—the Royal Exchange Assurance, and the London Assurance Corporation, both of the City of London, and both still in existence. Following the example of several of the older institutions, these companies freed the policy holder from any liability for the losses of others, charging a fixed premium, which was expressed in the policy, and this method has been generally followed by the joint stock companies since organized. It has proven by far the more popular form. At this time nine-tenths of the fire insurance in the United States is in joint stock companies, the so-called mutual organizations carrying the other one-tenth, and it will therefore probably be sufficient if we confine our examination of the rate question to the methods of these joint stock companies.

In a general way it may be said that these companies operating in the United States are now called upon to write about eighteen billions of dollars in insurance during the year, and upon this amount a sufficient premium must be charged to cover the ordinary fire losses of the year, the expense of conducting the business, and a proper reserve fund for conflagrations which are bound to occur from time to time; a margin of profit must also be provided for

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the use and risk of the capital invested. The fire losses the companies expect to pay to policy holders upon this amount of liability are nearly one hundred millions of dollars per annum, not including those attending great conflagrations, such as that of Baltimore in 1904, which alone cost the insurance companies thirty-five millions of dollars. In the way of expenses the companies are called upon to pay numerous charges on the business under this general heading, such as supervisory and management expenses at the head office of the company and at its various agencies; the cost of soliciting and writing the business and the collection of the premium thereon, usually in the form of commission on the premium involved; the cost of surveying and rate making; contributions for the support of inspection bureaus, fire marshals and salvage corps; taxes on premium receipts and fees imposed by the various states in which the company does business. All these expenses taken together will probably reach in round figures about seventy millions of dollars per annum.

The expense of conducting the business has been the subject of criticism from time to time by company managers as well as by the general public, but while some of these expenses are in a measure controllable by the companies, any very great lessening of the expense account can hardly be looked for while the business is conducted along its present lines, and while the companies are expected to contribute so much to the protection of property from fire, aside from their payments for losses. As a matter of fact numerous charges which apper in the expense acounts of the companies could more properly be included in the loss accounts, as for example, the amounts paid for the support of inspection bureaus and salvage corps, these having to do directly with the lessening of the fire waste.

A heavy item of expense, and one which is unfortunately increasing, is the tax on premiums imposed by the various states. It may not be out of place for me to express the

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opinion that this increasing burden of taxation arises from the fact that the principles governing fire insurance are not at all clearly understood by legislators generally. It must be kept in mind that the companies have but one source of income from which to pay the fire loss and the expense of carrying on the business,—and this one source is the premium derived from the issuance of policies. The sums received as interest on invested funds cannot properly be drawn upon for losses and expenses. Were it necessary to do this, a company would be better off by ceasing to transact insurance, becoming simply a corporation or organization for the investment of funds. When the premium income is taxed by the state, the premiums must be made sufficiently large to cover this tax, and the insuring property owner thus pays not only his ordinary taxes in common with all property owners, but also contributes to this further tax on insurance premiums, which the non-insurers, less prudent or less thrifty, escape. However, it is unnecessary for us to discuss the economic principle involved in indirect taxation; we are confronted with a fact, not a theory, and simply find it necessary to include in the premium a sum sufficient to cover taxes as well as other expenses of the business. We will therefore dismuss this curious example of a tax on a tax, and get back to the feature of the basis of the insurance premium.

To meet the losses, ordinary and conflagration, the expenses and the necessary profit on the venture, the companies during a period of five years ending December 31, 1904, have been collecting premiums at an average rate of about $1.11 on each $100 of insurance. If it were possible for a company to do this in fact, that is to collect $1.11 on each $100 of liability, there would be very little difficulty in insurance rating. We have already likened insurance to a tax, and if this tax were compulsory like the tax of a government, and if it were levied on the fixed value of property the same as the tax for the support of our public

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schools, the matter would be simple. The property owner contributes to the tax for public schools on the basis of the value of his property, whether he has half a dozen children receiving the benefits of public school education, or no children at all. Similarly, let us say, he contributes in the same way to the tax for the maintenance of the fire department, whether he be the owner of a planing mill or of a so-called fire-proof office building,—both are taxed according to the value, notwithstanding the fact that the fire department would probably be called upon to act many more times in the case of the planing mill than in the case of the fire-proof building, and the tax is paid more or less cheerfully because it is levied according to the law and the custom.

But insurance considered as a tax is not compulsory either from the stand point of the insurer or the insured,—and a few of the contingencies which would present themselves should the company attempt to charge a uniform rate of $1.11 per hundred will readily occur to you. It is quite apparent that the planing mill is more liable to destruction by fire than is the fire-proof office building, hence, the fire-proof building could probably be insured against fire for a much lower rate than $1.11 per hundred, and the planing mill owner should probably pay a much higher rate. The well managed insurance company would undoubtedly decline applications for insurance on planing mills at $1.11, while gladly accepting insurance on the fire-proof office building at that rate; on the other hand, the owner of the fire-proof building would strongly object to paying the average rate.

This feature is recognized by insurance companies, and the fire insurance tax is assessed according to hazards, so-called; that is to say, it is assessed according to the probability of the destruction of the property by fire.

The division of the numerous properties calling for fire insurance (risks as they are termed) into classes of hazard

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has been the slow outgrowth of many, many years, and even now the system is far from perfect. Primarily hazards may be said to be of two kinds,—the physical hazard, which is the danger from loss by fire inherent in the property itself, irrespective of its ownership or management, and the moral hazard, which brings in the personal element, the human desire that the property be destroyed, or the lack of desire for its preservation. As may be imagined, the moral hazard is usually a hidden unknown quantity. Where it is suspected to exist, the insurance companies avoid the risk entirely; nevertheless the moral hazard is responsible for a very large share of the insured fire waste. The physical hazard is more susceptible of measurement and analysis. Underwriters divide it broadly into two classes—the internal hazard, which is the hazard of the occupancy, and the external hazard, which is the hazard of the exposure, that is the surroundings of the risk. With this second class may also be included such hazards as lightning, sparks from chimneys or locomotives, etc. It would be practically impossible to name all of the various causes of the origin and spread of fire, which enter into the determination of the hazard. A glance at the fire tables published by the Chronicle Company of New York will, however, show that the most important factor is that of exposure to burning property. According to these tables about 30 per cent. of the fire waste results from exposure, or in other words, nearly one-third of the fire loss is caused by the spreading of fire from the building in which it originates to other buildings. Defective flues and heating apparatus, incendiarism, spontaneous combustion, defective electric wiring and lights, are all prolific causes of fire, while buildings of inferior construction, of unusual height or of very large area add to its spread.

Following the theory that insurance rates are assessed according to the hazard, the fire loss on planing mills that burn is expected to be made good by premiums collected for

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insuring all planing mills. Similarly losses on buildings occupied for mercantile purposes are expected to be paid out of premiums collected for insuring such buildings. Pursuing this theory the thought will suggest itself that the well planned, substantially built and carefully managed planing mill, supplied with modern appliances for fighting fire, should carry a lower rate of premium than the flimsily constructed, carelessly run and poorly protected plant, even though both be classed as having the planing mill hazard. This, of course, will apply with equal force to the varying hazards of two mercantile buildings.

Underwriters recognize this, and not only are risks divided into classes according to hazard, but an attempt is made to analyze and estimate the hazard of each individual risk of the class.

Let us go one step farther. The fire waste of the country is not by any means evenly distributed,—climatic conditions, the character of the people, strict or lax enforcement of laws, and many other features contribute to the extent of the fire waste. The hot, dry climate of Arizona is much more conducive to the spread of fire than is the moist, fog-laden air of the northern coast counties of California, and following our general theory the insurance rates on all classes of hazards in Arizona, for example, should be higher in proportion to the amount insured than on similar hazards in the sections situated more favorably climatically. The aim is to estimate and collect the premium on fire insurance in such a manner that any given class of risk in all sections of the country, and all classes of risks in any given section of the country, shall be what might be termed self-supporting.

This is exactly what the insurance companies are endeavoring to do by the use of rates graduated to suit the hazard. Like rates for like hazards is the theory. In early times, and in fact up to within the last forty years, the companies seem to have paid very little attention to

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the classification of hazards,—rating methods were very crude, and the rates were based entirely upon the judgment of the underwriters making them, which judgment when formed from meager information could be hardly more than a guess. The judgment method continued to be used for many years, in fact is in use at the present time at many points, and with the help of improving systems of classification by the companies gradually became productive of results fairly satisfactory in character. The rates were usually made by or with the assistance of special agents of the companies, who from long experience in investigating fire losses had absorbed a fund of information and knowledge, but under the working of the plan little attention could be paid to detail, and the resulting rate was more in the nature of the rater's general impression of the comparative hazard of the property rated. Too much depended also on the personal element in rating under such a plan. A rate might easily be given one risk by the person rating it entirely at variance with the rate given by another person to a neighboring risk of the same construction and occupancy. One person's experience and judgment varied from another's, producing varying results.

It was to meet these and other objections to the plan that the present method of tariffs and schedules was finally devised. It is not claimed that the present method is by any means perfect, simply that it is an improvement over the old methods. These tariffs and schedules usually represent combined action, and are generally the result of the work of a large number of companies associated together. Briefly, the schedules fix an arbitrary basis rate for all risks of a given class, additions to and deductions from this basis rate being made for each particular in which the risk to be rated departs from a standard described in the schedule, which in some cases goes into the minutest details of hazard. In a general way it may be said that the basis rate represents the unknown and unanalyzed portion of the hazard,

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while the additions to the basis rate represent that portion which has been analyzed and in part measured. While the foundation of the schedule is in a great measure judgment, the judgment is based on the combined experience and classification of many companies. True, the judgment of the underwriters still differs, and the schedules in use in one part of the country may differ materially from those devised by other underwriters for use in another part. As the schedules are usually intricate and complicated, it has been found convenient, I might perhaps say necessary, for the associated companies to employ trained experts to apply them and to advise the companies and their agents of the resulting rates.

There are many of these rating associations in the United States, each covering a certain defined territory, and all working along practically the same lines, although as stated above both methods and results may differ. In the Pacific West there are three such organizations:—The Rocky Mountain Underwriters covers Colorado, Wyoming and New Mexico. The Board of Fire Underwriters of the Pacific covers California, Oregon, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Arizona. The Washington Insurance Association covers the State of Washington.

I now propose to go into the details of some of these tariffs and schedules, and it will perhaps be more interesting to you and certainly easier for me if we examine some of those in use in California by the Board of Fire Underwriters of the Pacific.

Taking up the simplest tariff first, we find it intended for all classes of risks not under the protection of an organized fire department. Three simple standards of construction are given—two for brick or stone buildings, and one for frame.

The standard of the first class is a building built of brick or stone, having a metal or other hard roof with fire walls rising above the roof, without frame partitions separating

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occupancies on the ground floor, and located at least forty feet from all frame buildings and brick factories.

The standard of the second class differs from this in permitting a shingle roof, a front wall of frame, and sidewalls not extending above the roof, and requires a separation of fifty feet from all frame buildings and brick factories.

The standard of the third class is a frame building, hard finished inside, provided with brick chimneys and separated at least a hundred feet from other frame buildings and brick factories.

A table of rates is provided which are graded according to the occupancy of the building, some 400 different occupancies in each of the three classes being named. These rates, called basis rates, range from 50c per hundred dollars for the occupancy of a brick dwelling to $10 per hundred dollars for the occupancy of a planing mill or other dry woodworking establishment. For any departure from the standard of construction a prescribed addition is made to the basis rate; for example, a frame partition separating ground floor occupancies in a brick building entails an addition to the basis rate of 20c per hundred dollars; the presence of a terra cotta pipe doing duty as a chimney in a frame building adds 15c to the basis.

A table of charges is provided to be imposed for any frame buildings or brick factories which are within the proscribed distances. These charges are called exposure charges, and are graduated according to the hazard of the exposure and its distance from the building which is being rated. A planing mill, for example, forty feet distant from a brick building, is considered a more hazardous exposure than a dwelling house ten feet away, and the exposure charges are graded to correspond. The tariff also provides suitable charges for the presence or use of unusually hazardous articles, as, for example, gasoline when used in lamps for lights.

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As stated above, this tariff is for use where buildings are not under the protection of organized fire departments, hence, it applies in the small towns only, where the buildings are simple and those of any one class vary very little from each other in construction, making it unnecessary to analyze the hazard so closely as is done in the case of the more complicated structures of the larger cities. The tariff is easily applied by the agents of the companies residing in the towns for which it is intended, and does not require the services of an expert.

Similar tariffs modified to meet the improved conditions are used for frame buildings in cities and towns having organized fire departments, but brick buildings in such towns receive a different treatment, as follows.

In the schedule devised for such buildings the standard of construction is much higher and comes nearer to what might be considered an ideal building from the standpoint of fire insurance, while in the simple tariff first described the standard is that of an average building. I will read the principal items of this higher standard.

Outer walls of brick or stone, with side walls extending through and not less than 12 inches above the roof in parapet and coped.

Party walls 4 inches thicker than independent walls.

Ground floor area not over 5,000 square feet.

Height not over three stories.

Floors double, with waterproof paper or similar material between.

Beams and joists wood, and wood story posts or protected iron columns.

Elevators trapped, or in brick shaft with fire doors each floor.

Stairways, except from street or in office buildings, to be closed by doors.

Skylights, one-quarter inch glass in iron frames; if exceeding twenty-four superficial feet, to be covered with standard wire netting.

Roof, metal, composition, tile or slate.

Cornice, metal, stone or brick.

Flues, brick.

Heated by steam.

Lighted by gas.

All ground floor and basement partitions, brick or tile.

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Such a building carries a basis rate of $1.00 per hundred when unoccupied. Under the tariff previously described a basis rate was provided for each of a large number of different occupancies, but in the schedule we are now discussing the occupancy feature is treated in a different manner, which will be hereafter mentioned in detail.

A standard city is then defined, again from the point of view of the fire insurance companies.

STANDARD CITY.

Gravity water system, with sufficient head at all hours to give pressure at hydrants of not less than 80 pounds (which will give stream, 1¼-inch nozzle and 100 feet hose 80 to 100 feet high).

The main supply pipe to be in duplicate, or intermediate reservoirs provided.

Reservoir or source of supply to have capacity for at least five days' supply for domestic and fire purposes.

Water mains to be not less than six inches in dwelling section, and not less than eight inches (as a minimum) in mercantile section.

Hydrants to be not more than 150 feet apart in mercantile district and 300 feet in dwelling district.

Full Paid Department—10 men to each steamer or 9 men to each hose cart when gravity system or direct pressure is relied upon.

Two steamers (4 hose carts for gravity and direct pressure systems) one to each square mile of compact district, or one to each 10,000 population (but not less than two steamers or 4 hose carts in any case).

One hook and ladder truck to every four steamers or four hose carts.

Fire alarm telegraph.

Efficient police department.

Streets, macadamized, paved or of other hard material, 60% of which are not less than 70 feet wide.

Building law, well enforced.

No outlying exposure, or conflagration hazard.

Climatic conditions, good; (within twenty-five miles of the Pacific Coast line California and Oregon) and free from high winds combined with dry atmosphere.

Good previous fire record.

Details of approved systems of water works and accepted fire departments are given as follows:

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WATER WORKS.

The best system of water works for fire purposes is the gravity.

Reservoir or source of supply with sufficient elevation (185 feet or more) to give pressure at hydrant of 80 to 100 pounds to the square inch, and capacity for five days' supply for domestic and fire purposes.

Mains from reservoir should be in duplicate and the street mains of sufficient capacity to supply all the apparatus that could be concentrated at one fire.

If the pressure is not standard, steamers with heaters must be maintained, not less than two for any town and for large towns at least one for each square mile of compactly built up district.

Hydrants should be located so that the distance between them will not exceed 300 feet, and in the business section the limit should be not more than 150 feet.

When pumping system is used the pump works should be in a brick building free from exposure and have duplicate machinery.

A storage reservoir or stand pipe holding not less than ten hours' supply should be maintained in connection with a pumping system.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.

Should consist of:

Chief.

Assistant Chiefs—The number depending on the size of the town.

Two steamers—or four hose carts (not less in any case), and for large towns one steamer to each square mile of compact district, or each 10,000 population.

Ten men to each steamer.

Nine men to each hose cart. (Gravity or direct pressure system.)

One truck to every four steamers.

Twelve men to each truck company.

One chemical to every four steamers.

Four men to each chemical.

NOTE—If a town requires less than four steamers, there should be at least one chemical and one truck in any case.

There should be 1,000 feet of first-class hose to each steamer, or 500 feet to each hose cart if gravity or direct pressure is relied upon, and not less in any case than a total of 2,000 feet.

Unreliable hose should be destroyed.

The conditions obtaining in any city or town are closely

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compared with the standard prescribed. For each particular in which the city or town comes up to the standard the schedule provides a fixed credit, and upon all of these credits taken together the companies base a percentage allowance which they are prepared to make for the efficiency of the fire department and water supply.

Under the schedule which we are discussing the method of arriving at the rate on any given building would be as follows:—To the basis rate of $1.00 a fixed addition is made for each departure from the standard; for example, the standard calls for a building not over three stories high; if the building be of four stories, 5c is added, for five stories 10c is added, for six stories 20c is added, the charge being doubled, and so on, except that the schedule provides that a so-called fire-proof building may be eight stories in height without an addition to the basis rate for that feature. All departures from the standard of construction having been noted and charged for, a prescribed graduated charge is made for the exposures, if any, according to their character, serious or otherwise. A charge is then made for the occupancy, according to its hazard, the schedule providing an individual charge for each of some 400 classes of occupancy, a high charge being made for a livery stable occupancy, for example, with its inflammable hay and straw, while a low charge is fixed for, let us say, a grocery store. Allowances are then made for certain advantages not found with sufficient frequency to warrant their mention in the standard; for example, for fire-resisting material between the layers of a double floor an allowance of five per cent. is made, and a similar allowance is made for a watchman. The result up to this point might be said to be the rate of the building without the protection of the public fire department. The percentage the companies are willing to allow for this protection is now taken off, and the result is the rate at which the insurance companies are prepared to insure the building.

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From the building rate the rate on the contents is built up according to the susceptibility of the contents to damage by fire. For example, a tobacco stock does not add materially to the hazard of the building, yet in itself is extremely sensitive to smoke and water, hence, easily damaged by a small fire. The prescribed addition to the building rate to obtain the rate on such a stock is, therefore, comparatively heavy.

One other feature I should like to allude to before dismissing this schedule, and that is the proportion of insurance to value. In towns having good fire departments experience has shown that comparatively few fires occur which entirely consume the property insured. By far the greater number of fires are extinguished long before that point is reached. Unless some special provision is inserted in the ordinary fire insurance policy, the company pays the entire amount of any loss that may occur up to the full amount of the policy, and many property owners, relying upon this and upon the efficiency of the fire department, are content to carry a small amount of insurance in proportion to value. It will be readily seen that as the great majority of fires result in small losses, those who carry light insurance compared with value will in the long run receive from the companies more money for losses in proportion to the premium paid than do those who carry comparatively full insurance to value, provided the rate of premium is the same, whether the insurance be light or full. To some extent this is equalized in the schedule by a provision that on certain classes of risks, if a specified proportion of more than seventy per cent. of insurance to value is carried, a reduction is made in the rate, the provision applying to such cities and towns as have fire departments and water supplies of a certain degree of efficiency. This feature is called "co-insurance," and receives its name from the requirement in the insurance contract wherever it is introduced that if the owner permits

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his insurance to fall below a certain proportion of the value of his property he shall become a co-insurer with the company for the deficiency, and as such shall bear a share of the loss. Underwriters generally admit that the use of this feature should be more universal. It provides in a simple way for the equalization of insurance to values, and it is a pretty well settled theory that such equalization is absolutely necessary as a basis for perfectly fair and equitable rates. The principle has been recognized for many years in several European countries where the companies are compelled by law to incorporate this feature in the policies they issue. On the other hand in several of the States of the United States the laws prohibit the application of this principle by the companies—doubtless owing to an entire misconception by legislators of its purpose.

I have here the rates on a well-known building in San Francisco, showing the operation of the schedule and the principle of co-insurance.

Basis rate			$1.00
Defects and departures from standard charged for	Five stories high	.10	
	Lighted by electricity	.02	
	Concealed roof space	.04	
	Wooden ceilings	.11	
Occupancy charge		.10	
			1.37
Special features	Street hydrant on large main nearby; Outside standpipe for fire dept.	.14	
Allowance for San Francisco Fire Department		.70	
			.84
Final rate			.53

Now if the owner of the building is willing to take out insurance on it equal to seventy per cent. of its value, he can obtain the insurance at 45c per hundred instead of 53c. If he is willing to insure up to eighty per cent. of its value he pays 42c per hundred and for insurance based on ninety per cent, of its value he pays 40c per hundred.

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It is quite true the charges for the different departures from the standard are arbitrary, and it is not claimed that they exactly measure the hazard—no information obtainable by the companies could demonstrate, for example, that the addition of a fourth and fifth story to a building would warrant an addition of just 10c to the rate. The main point is that the charges and allowances are uniform, and that in the case of all brick buildings the charge for the two additional stories is 10c. No discrimination is made among property owners, and the charge is as fair for one as for another.

I would like to give you some idea of how rates are made on buildings occupied for manufacturing and similar purposes, such as sawmills, mining plants, packing houses, etc. Special schedules dealing with the particular hazards of the process or work carried on are devised for such risks to be applied when the property to be rated is under some organized fire protection. Without such protection little attempt is made to analyze the hazard of the individual risk, which is usually rated by the use of the simple tariff first described

An excellent example of a schedule for a manufacturing plant is that promulgated by the Washington Insurance Association for shingle mills and their dry kilns, the standard of construction being as follows:

FRAME STANDARD MILL.

(*a*) Good construction and tidy; (*b*) metal or composition roof; (*c*) sides and inside whitewashed throughout twice each year; (*d*) using no dry logs or dry shingle bolts; (*e*) no oil room in mill; (*f*) watchman with watch clock in use nights, Sundays and when mill is not in operation; (*g*) water tank for fire purposes, or connection with public water works, with hydrants corresponding to those used by local fire department, at least two being within one hundred feet of mill, all in the best order; (*h*) casks of water not more than twenty-five feet apart, on roof and throughout mill (well supplied perforated pipe on roof considered equal to casks of water), including metal fire buckets; (*i*) ladders to roof; (*j*) coal gas, electric or

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closed kerosene lamps for lights; (*k*) no lumber piled within one hundred feet; (*l*) no slab pit or pile within three hundred feet; (*m*) no dry kiln within two hundred feet; (*n*) brick boiler-house with metal or composition roof, detached at least fifty feet, with brick stack; (*o*) fire pump in boiler-house; (*p*) not less than five hundred feet 2½-inch hose, distributed between fire pump, and at least two hydrants distant not less than fifty feet, but within one hundred feet from mill; (*q*) steam up nights and Sundays.

FRAME STANDARD DRY KILN.

(*a*) Six-inch solid wall construction, tidy, with earth floor; (*b*) metal or composition roof; (*c*) water tank for fire purposes or connection with public water works, with hydrant corresponding to those used by local fire department; at least two being within 150 feet of kiln; all in the best order; fire pump in boiler-house or in independent pump-house; not less than 500 feet of 2½-inch fire hose distributed between fire pump and at least two hydrants distant not more than 50 feet, but within 150 feet from kiln; (*d*) well supplied perforated pipe on roof and in kiln; (*e*) live steam jets in kiln with valves arranged to be operated outside; (*f*) steam pipes to be on iron supports and not less than two inches from wood; (*g*) to be at least 200 feet distant from mill, and (*h*) 300 feet distant from slab pile or pit; (*i*) watchman with approved watch clock in use; (*j*) thermometer in kiln against glass window and so situated that it can be seen without opening the kiln.

The method of arriving at the rate is the same as that described for brick buildings. Charges for departures from standard are very marked, and the wide difference between the well-planned mill and the poor one is clearly shown in the rate. Some mills carry a rate as low as $5.00 per hundred, while others are so badly constructed as to rate as high as $14.00 per hundred.

Many similar schedules are in use, but the foregoing will I think suffice to give you a general idea of the methods employed.

Before closing I can only say that while we freely confess many faults in our present system of rating much can be said in its favor. It is more than probable that some

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classes are rated too high, and some too low, but the opportunity given by the system for a comparison of results by the different companies tends gradually to the elimination of these faults, and in fact many modifications have been made in the schedules described since they were first adopted. Again, the charges are absolutely uniform, and two risks having exactly the same estimated hazard are given exactly the same rate.

That the present scales of rates are as a whole not far out of the way, but if anything too low rather than too high, over the country at large, is shown by a tabulation of the profits of sixty of the largest companies for a period of ten years ending December 31, 1904, the latest obtainable figures. This tabulation shows that on the combined premium income of $1,214,368,123 the profit to the companies was $28,925,165, or only 2.38 per cent.

One word more regarding the system with special reference to its economic value to the community at large. As has already been stated, insurance itself does not create, it merely distributes; property which is destroyed by fire cannot be replaced; it has disappeared forever, and the wealth of the community is decreased to that extent; therefore, that which tends to lessen the opportunity for the starting of a fire or for its spread has a distinct economic advantage, and this advantage is claimed for the tariffs and schedules of the companies.

There is nothing confidential about them; any property owner can readily ascertain how the rate on his building is arrived at. The fact that dangerous defects in construction are itemized and charged for brings them forcibly before him. Moreover, the pecuniary benefit in the lowering of his insurance premium offers him a direct incentive for the improvement of the hazard.

Those contemplating the erection of buildings can discover what features the insurance companies by long experience have come to look upon as serious hazards, and can

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plan to avoid them, knowing that the nearer the building comes to standard the lower will be the rate.

This has to do with the individual risk, but the system is equally influential in the establishment of fire departments, effective water supplies and other public improvements.

To this extent the tariffs and schedules serve a double purpose; for while they have become of almost indispensable assistance to the companies they also exert a strong and direct influence upon the conservation of property and therefore upon the prosperity of the community at large.

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UNIVERSITY RECORD.

ALBERT H. ALLEN.

THE BANCROFT LIBRARY.

President Wheeler has received many letters congratulating the University upon its acquisition of the Bancroft Library. Aside from letters, come clippings from several hundred newspapers of the country, expressing appreciation of the immense value to American history of the opening of the Bancroft Library to the use of scholars by the University of California. A letter from Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart, professor of History in Harvard University, may be quoted in part: "I was very much pleased to know that the University of California had acquired this incomparable collection. While in California I had the opportunity of spending a few hours in the library, and satisfied myself of the great extent and value of the contents. I am amazed that you have been able to acquire it for the sum stated. Once properly housed and made available, it will be a place of pilgrimage for all students of Western America, of whom the number will undoubtedly increase because of the opening up of the collection. I most cordially congratulate the University of California upon this acquisition, which could never be duplicated for any amount of money, and which furnishes the material for the settlement of a great many otherwise unsoluble questions in American history."

Numbers of friends of the University have contributed documents and manuscripts relating to the early history of

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California, to be added to the collection. In this way, with the Bancroft Library as a nucleus, California will become the repository of many other historical treasures.

The American Bridge Company of New York, through its San Francisco representatives, Messrs. Fred R. Muhs and William H. Popert, has presented to the Department of Civil Engineering some excellent structural models of steel framing of the James Flood Building, in San Francisco, forming a valuable acquisition for the civil engineering collection.

The Department of Civil Engineering proposes to gather for the use of students one of the largest and completest collections of large photographs of engineering structures that can be secured. The railroads and manufacturers of engineering and structural materials of the country have been particularly generous in their assistance to the Department in this effort. Other recent gifts to the Department have been: A complete set of drawings of the steel skeleton of the James Flood Building, San Francisco, from the American Bridge Company; a large picture of the Cantilever bridge crossing the Monongahela River, at Pittsburgh, by the Wabash Railroad; a large picture of the longest stone arch bridge in the world, crossing the Susquehanna River, near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, from the Pennsylvania Railroad; a framed engraving of the New York and Brooklyn bridge, from John R. Roebling's Sons Company, New York; and a complete set of drawings of the foundations and superstructure of the Page Bascule bridge, now being erected at Third and Townsend streets, San Francisco.

A COLLECTION OF PERUVIAN ANTIQUITIES.

A unique collection of antiquities from Peru has been shipped to the Anthropological Museum of the University. On the first of January a law of the Peruvian Govern-

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ment went into effect, which forbids absolutely the exportation of antiquities from that country. All such antiquities, if excavated by foreigners, are hereafter to be deposited in the National Museum of Peru. The last consignment of such material that will ever leave Peru is the one sent to the University of California.

The University now possesses the most carefully gathered collection of Peruvian antiquities in the world, and one of the largest. The entire collection is the fruit of systematic excavations made under the direction of Dr. Max Uhle, who has recently resigned his position on the staff of the University to become Director of the Peruvian National Museum.

The consignment will be installed in the Museum of the Department of Anthropology, at the Affiliated Colleges in San Francisco.

EGYPTIAN ANTIQUITIES RECEIVED.

A shipment of Egyptian antiquities has been received at the Museum of the Department of Anthropology at the Affiliated Colleges, which comprises the contents of one hundred and eighty-five cases obtained by Dr. George A. Reisner on excavations of the Hearst Egyptian Expedition for the University at Naga-ed-Der and Gizeh. From these two sites a vast amount of material has been gathered of great importance.

At Naga-ed-Der eleven cemeteries were excavated, the results definitely establishing the chronology from the earliest, or predynastic, to the latest, or Coptic, periods. From the anatomical material obtained, Professor Elliott Smith of the Khedivial School of Medicine is proving that the inhabitants of Egypt of all periods belong to one continuous race, presenting the same physical and anatomical characteristics. The mummies found in some of the prehistoric cemeteries were in a remarkable state of preservation. Among the objects found were flint knives, stone, copper,

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and bronze implements, paint palettes, ornaments of ivory pottery, beads, amulets, coffins, clothing, and embroideries.

At the great pyramid of Gizeh, where the Expedition had a grant for excavation, the explorations revealed the history of the royal cemetery. The most important objects found in this cemetery were seven small stelae of the time of Cheops, covered with exquisite reliefs, one of them, representing Wep-em-Nofret, son of the Pharaoh, being beautifully painted. There was also an extraordinary white limestone head of Ka-Nofer, an official of Cheops; a fine double statue of a priest named Sennuw, and his wife; and a limestone offering-bowl of Yeni, another official of Cheops. In later tombs were found thirty-four statues and groups giving a great variety of forms and workmanship, the most remarkable of these being a wooden statue of a boy found beside the coffin of what is supposed to be his mother.

The cases containing this important shipment have been placed in the Museum at the Affiliated Colleges, where they will be unpacked, catalogued, and installed for exhibition.

A FUND FOR BIOLOGICAL RESEARCH.

Miss Ellen B. Scripps of La Jolla, San Diego County, has offered to the University the sum of $50,000, to be used as a fund for the erection and equipment of a building at La Jolla for a marine biological laboratory. In case the building shall have been erected before the gift of Miss Scripps becomes available, the money will be considered an endowment, the income to be used for the support of the laboratory.

It is possible that this gift will be available at an early date, but it may be decided to leave the establishment of the fund in abeyance during the lifetime of the donor.

This gift is of great importance to the University, insuring the permanence of the work now being done under the direction of the University in the investigation of the marine animal and plant life of the Pacific Coast.

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In recognition of the generosity of Miss Scripps in making the above offer, the Board of Regents at a meeting on February 13 passed the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Board of Regents, highly appreciating the generous offer of Miss Ellen B. Scripps to provide by her last will a gift of fifty thousand dollars for the purpose of furnishing and establishing a Marine Biological Laboratory, hereby expresses its thanks to Miss Ellen B. Scripps for her offer, and its willingness to accept and apply that amount and such amounts as may hereafter be received for the same purpose to the erection and maintenance of a marine biological laboratory; it being understood, however, that the acceptance of such trust does not carry with it any obligation on the part of the University of California to provide any funds for any purpose in connection with said work.

CHARTER DAY EXERCISES.

The exercises for Charter Day, 1906, were held on March 23, the anniversary of the founding of the University, in the Harmon Gymnasium. A pouring rain prevented the use of the Greek Theatre. After an invocation by Rev. John Howland Lathrop and a musical selection by the University Cadet Band, State Senator George Russell Lukens, President of the Alumni Association of the University, spoke in behalf of the Alumni on How to be an Alumnus. Following Senator Lukens, President Wheeler spoke of the growth and needs of the University, concluding his remarks with the statement that the sum of $100,000 had been given to the University by the widow of the late Judge John H. Boalt, for the construction of a building for the Department of Jurisprudence, to be known as the Boalt Law Building. The amount is at present in the hands of Judge C. W. Slack, Mr. Reuben H. Lloyd, and Mr. Charles S. Wheeler as trustees, and will be almost immediately available.

The speaker of the day was President Edwin A. Alderman, of the University of Virginia. President Alderman's address, as well as the statement of President Wheeler, is given in full in this number of the University CHRONICLE.

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Another feature of the Charter Day observances was the formal transfer to the Freshman class of the custody of the "Big C" on Charter Hill. Owing to the weather, this ceremony was held in Hearst Hall, instead of on the hillside. Professor G. C. Edwards gave a short account of Charter Day celebrations, after which President W. G. Duggin, of the Sophomore class, gave a deed for the "C" to President C. H. Cunningham, of the Freshman class. The women of the two classes entertained the men at luncheon.

A GIFT TO THE MARK HOPKINS INSTITUTE.

Mr. E. H. Searles of Methuen, Massachusetts, has donated the sum of $100,000 for the use of the Mark Hopkins Institute of Art. This comes to the University at once, and wil be considered an endowment of the Institute. Mr. Searles is the heir and executor of the Hopkins estate, and has shown before this his great interest in the work of the University.

CHANGES IN SOUTH HALL.

The rooms vacated in South Hall by the removal of the administrative offices to California Hall have been taken by the departments of Geology and Physics. The former office of the President will be occupied by Professor Frederick Slate, Dean of the College of Natural Sciences, and during his absence at present from the University by Professor E. P. Lewis. The former ante-room to the President's office, and the rooms used by the Secretary of the Board of Regents, will be taken by the Department of Physics, and used largely for the installation of apparatus for heat experiments.

Part of the old Recorder's Office will be used as a petrographical museum for the Department of Geology.

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THE ARCHITECTURAL BUILDING.

The Department of Architecture on January 23 took possession of the new building constructed for it at the north entrance to the University grounds.

The new building is shingle covered, about 30 by 75 feet in dimensions. It is intended as a temporary building only, and forms no part of the permanent plan of the University. Until some permanent building makes provision for the needs of the classes in Architecture and for the other requirements of this department, this temporary building will be found indispensable.

In addition to the class rooms, the building contains commodious offices for Professor John Galen Howard, and for his assistants, Mr. Harrison and Mr. Plowman.

THE NEW POWER PLANT.

The central lighting and heating plant of the University, recently erected at a cost of $60,000, was put into partial operation at the beginning of the year. The three large oil-burning Babcock & Wilcox boilers are capable of generating over 300 horsepower, and in the near future will furnish steam for generating all the electric power needed for use on the campus. The exhaust steam is used for heating, and will be carried to Hearst Hall, California Hall, the Library, the Physiological Laboratory, the Hearst Memorial Mining building, and eventually to all the buildings on the campus.

From an alumnus of the class of 1886 the Library has received the gift of the facsimile reprint of Shakespeare's Sonnets, Lucrece, Pericles, and Passionate Pilgrim, in their first editions, 1593–1609. They are reproductions by the collotype process of the finest accessible copies, and will supplement the fac-simile of the first folio edition of the plays, received in 1902 from the same generous donor.

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Steel bookshelves are being put in place on the third floor of California Hall for the Bancroft Library. Upon the completion of the shelving, the Bancroft collection will be transferred from its present location at the Mechanics Institute as quickly as possible. The south end of this floor of California Hall will be occupied by books and manuscripts, while in the north end will be stored the great accumulations of periodicals and newspapers.

Provision is being made for tests of reinforced concrete by the erection of a building for that purpose in the rear of the Mining and Civil Engineering building. These tests will be made under the direction of Professor Charles Derleth, Jr., professor of Structural Engineering. The great practical value of these tests is indicated by the expressed desires of dealers in the materials in question to coöperate with the University by furnishing the necessary supplies.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

The seventh annual meeting of the Association of American Universities was held at the University of California and at Stanford University on March 14, 15, 16, and 17. This association is composed not of individuals, but of institutions, namely, according to the constitution of the organization, of those engaged in graduate or advanced instruction. The object of the association is the promotion of the University as distinguished from the College, by mutual intercourse and coöperation. No action of the association is binding on any of the institutions composing it, but the discussion of questions relating to the administration and conduct of graduate schools has been found to be of great value to institutions that are striving to realize the ideals of the true university in the fullest sense. The practical value of the association has been shown by its recognition abroad, and by the agreement made on the part of several important foreign institutions that students coming

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from a university belonging to the Association will be received upon exactly the same footing as their own native students.

The first session of the seventh meeting was held at the Mark Hopkins Institute, in San Francisco. Papers on the subject of the Interchange of Professors in Universities were presented on behalf of the University of California by President Benjamin Ide Wheeler, and on behalf of Harvard University by Professor William James. The second session was held in the Faculty Room, California Hall, University of California, on March 15. Papers were presented on behalf of Leland Stanford Junior University by President David Starr Jordan, and in behalf of Yale University by Professor Theodore S. Woolsey, on the question, To what Extent should Professors engaged in Research be relieved from Instruction? For the third session, the delegates went to Stanford University, on March 16, and met in the Council Room, where papers on the Reaction of Graduate Work on the other Work of the University were read on behalf of Cornell University by Professor C. A. Duniway of Stanford University representing President Jacob Gould Schurman of Cornell, and by Professor William H. Carpenter, on behalf of Columbia University. The fourth session, at the Mark Hopkins Institute, in San Francisco, was given to the discussion of a paper presented on behalf of Princeton University by Professor Andrew F. West, on The Organization of the American University, with especial Reference to the Changes in the Conception of a "Faculty." By invitation, Professor Charles M. Gayley, of the University of California, outlined his plans for the establishment of a coöperative library of fac-similes of manuscripts.

During the meeting of the association, the delegates were entertained by the Regents of the University of California and by the Trustees of Stanford University at a luncheon served at the Mark Hopkins Institute on the first day; by the President and Faculties of the University of

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California at luncheon at the Faculty Club, and at the third symphony concert in the Greek Theatre, and by the University Club of San Francisco at dinner on Thursday, the 15th; by President and Mrs. Jordan at luncheon at Stanford University, and by the Bohemian Club of San Francisco at dinner, on Friday; and by the United Railroads of San Francisco, who provided a sight-seeing tour in and about the city in a private car on Saturday.

The members of the association, and the delegates representing them, are as follows: The University of California, President Benjamin Ide Wheeler, Professors Irving Stringham, Armin O. Leuschner, Alexis F. Lange, and Bernard Moses; The Catholic University of America, Right Rev. Thomas J. Conaty; the University of Chicago, Professor E. D. Burton; Clark University, President G. Stanley Hall; Columbia University, Professor William H. Carpenter and Mr. Frederick P. Keppel; Cornell University, President Jacob Gould Schurman, represented by Professor C. A. Duniway, of Stanford University; Johns Hopkins University, President Ira Remsen; Harvard University, Professor William James; Leland Stanford Junior University, President David Starr Jordan, Professors John Caspar Branner, John Maxson Stillman, Augustus Taber Murray, and John Ernst Matzke; the University of Michigan, Professor Martin Luther D'Ooge; the University of Pennsylvania, Dean Clarence G. Child; Princeton University, Professor Andrew F. West; the University of Virginia, President E. A. Alderman; the University of Wisconsin, President Charles R. Van Hise; Yale University, Professor Theodore S. Woolsey.

Presidents Schurman, Hall, and Alderman, Right Rev. T. J. Conaty, Dean Child, and Professor D'Ooge were unable to attend the conference on account of pressure of official duties.

The University of California was honored by the association by being chosen president for the coming year. Harvard University was elected vice-president, and Colum-

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bia reëlected secretary. The Universities of Chicago and Wisconsin were added to the executive committee, to whom was left the choice of place and time for the next annual meeting.

PHI BETA KAPPA ELECTIONS.

The Alpha chapter of Phi Beta Kappa for California, at a meeting held February 26, elected eighteen new members, as follows:

From the Faculty, Professor William A. Merrill.

From the Alumni, Professor Charles H. Rieber, '88.

From the Senior Class—E. B. Babcock (B.S., December, '05), L. D. Bohnett, W. J. Cooper, Miss J. M. Kern, W. E. Lyman, Miss H. E. Mayer, W. J. Musgrove (A.B., December, '05), Miss E. Schenck, H. E. Squire, Miss M. Van Orden, Miss E. E. Watson.

From the Junior Class—N. A. Eisner, H. N. Herrick, Julius Klein, Miss H. G. Mangels, H. E. Sherman, Jr.

The plan for electing members from the Junior Class was announced last year, but the present election of members of the class of 1907 is the first held under the new rule.

LECTURES BY PROFESSOR DE VRIES.

A series of lectures of unusual interest and importance will be delivered at the University of California during the first two weeks of May, by Professor Hugo de Vries, of Amsterdam.

Professor de Vries more than any other man of this generation deserves to be ranked with Darwin, on account of the original and important contributions made by him to the theory of evolution, as the result of patient and skillful experiments made during the last twenty years in the botanic gardens of the University of Amsterdam. Experimental confirmation of the laws of heredity and evolution outlined by Darwin has been by most Darwinians believed impossible. Professor de Vries has shown that evolution may be observed and experimented with in the

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same manner as any other life-process, and has removed evolution from the uncertainty of indirect observation and speculation.

The details of Professor de Vries' new theory of evolution, which he calls the mutation theory, have been set forth in a German work in two volumes, and in the volume of lectures which were delivered at the Summer Session of the University of California in 1904, afterwards published under the title "Species and Varieties." The later developments of Professor de Vries' experiments and theories will be given to the English-speaking public for the first time in his approaching lectures at the University of California.

It is greatly to be regretted that the series of lectures which were to be given at the University of California by Professor Anatole LeBraz, under the auspices of the Federation de l'Alliance Française, have been cancelled.

Professor LeBraz has received a call to return to France on account of serious illness in his family.

THE FOOTBALL SITUATION.

Since the last intercollegiate game, the football question has been the subject of much discussion. On another page will be found the report of the Committee on Athletics of the Academic Council, defending the game of football as a college sport, but at the same time calling for certain necessary modifications in the rules, and urging the adoption of a resolution agreed upon at a joint meeting of the presidents of the University of California and of Stanford University with the faculty committees on athletics of the two institutions. This resolution calls for a secession of the two California universities from the government of the present Football Rules Committee, and the substitution of the Rugby game for the American game as heretofore played, or else the modification of the American game so as to eliminate existing evils.

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The adoption of this resolution has meant that Stanford and California have formally withdrawn from the control of the so-called Rules Committee in the matter of football, and have taken an independent position, in which they have made themselves free to choose any form of the game, or modifications of the existing game, that may seem desirable.

The Joint Committees of the two universities met January 20, and appointed a sub-committee of six to "frame a report looking to the adoption of a series of rules governing intercollegiate football between California and Stanford; these rules to be such as to meet the objections, so far as possible, that have been raised by the faculty committees on athletics of the respective universities."

The Joint Committees also at this meeting referred to their committee of six a recommendation that no freshman be allowed to compete in any inter-university contests, and that the English or the New Zealand form of the Rugby game be adopted for the next intercollegiate Freshman game.

Pending a report from this committee on rules, the intercollegiate agreement committee of the students of the two universities at a meeting on March 3 passed resolutions deprecating the substitution of the Rugby game, and urging that the two universities bind themselves by the rules adopted by the eastern committee which then had the revision of the rules in hand. The conference committee of the two faculties, however, at their meeting on March 22, settled the matter finally by the following resolution:

Whereas, the administration of the two universities have decided that the so-called American game of football shall not be played at the universities without radical change; and whereas the conference in the East on rules has not produced changes that are satisfactory, be it

Resolved, That we recommend to the conference that the game of Rugby shall be substituted for the present game of football until such time as a satisfactory national game shall be developed.

Unanimously adopted by the joint athletic committee of the University of California and of the Leland Stanford Junior University, March 22, 1906.

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The conference committee presenting the above consisted of Professor George C. Edwards, Dr. Frank Simpson, '99, and Prentiss N. Gray, '06, for the University of California, and Professor Angell and Messrs. James Lanagan and E. P. Stott, for Stanford University. Besides those named, Dr. A. B. Spaulding, James A. Force, A. J. Chalmers, Roy Elliott, and W. T. Reid, Jr., were invited to act in an advisory capacity. Mr. Reid alone did not attend the meetings of the conference committee.

Before the decision was made which substitutes the Rugby game for the American game in the Stanford-California contests, an opportunity was given for all interested to see the Rugby game at its best, as played by the New Zealand champions on the old football field on February 10. The game was a match between the New Zealand team, which was returning from a tour of the world, after playing in forty-two games and being defeated in but one, and the champion team of British Columbia, from Vancouver. The marvelous speed and infallible team work of the New Zealand players was a revelation to the spectators, and won the champions an easy victory of 43 to 6. The game provoked a great deal of comment, most of it favorable, although the adherents of the old game were quick to point out the features that would make it unsatisfactory, in their opinion, as an intercollegiate game.

The adoption of the Rugby game by the intercollegiate committee has called forth considerable criticism. Members of the football teams of last year of both universities have expressed themselves as unwilling to have anything to do with the new game, and the objection has also been made that it will cost a large sum of money to modify the present football fields of the two institutions to secure the twenty additional yards of width necessary for the Rugby game.

There seems to be no disposition to question the fact, however, that the matter is settled so far as California and

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Stanford are concerned, and that the next intercollegiate game will be Rugby.

THE FOOTBALL QUESTION ELSEWHERE.

In January word was received that the Board of Overseers of Harvard University had voted to suspend the playing of football pending reforms in its rules that shall be acceptable to the board. This action was taken upon the recommendation of a special committee, which reported that the game as at present played was essentially bad in every respect. The report of this committee laid emphasis on the fact that the present formations in the game encourage trickery and foul play, with results that are bad for the morals as well as for the bodies of the players. The modifications of the game made by the so-called Rules Committee will probably not be acceptable to the Harvard Board.

Nine institutions of the Middle West were represented at a conference held in Chicago, January 19 and 20. The universities participating were Chicago, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Northwestern, Purdue, and Wisconsin. By the action of this meeting, football as heretofore played has been abolished as an intercollegiate sport in the conference colleges. The action of the Football Rules Committee will be awaited before further steps are taken, but if the revised rules are unsatisfactory the conference will appoint a committee to draft rules to suit the conference. By action of this conference, also, the coaches of the teams are to be members of the respective faculties, and the management of games will be under the control of the faculties.

A further step was taken by the Trustees of Northwestern University, who suspended football entirely for a period of five years, at a meeting held March 23.

In all that has been said and written about the present American game of football, objection has been made, not

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so much to the element of physical danger, although this has received much attention, as to the tendency of the game to encourage unsportsmanlike and dishonorable acts on the part of the players, under the cover of close formations and actuated by the desire to win at all hazards, and also to the large expenditures and receipts of money, in the hands of student managers who are subject to little or no supervision.

NOTE.—The Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee, composed of the old Football Rules Committee, of uncertain origin, and representatives of colleges who attended the recent conference on football reform held in New York, have adopted the new playing rules for 1906 since the above was written. The principal changes are:

Ten yards to be gained in three downs, instead of five.

Forward passes to be allowed, a forward pass across the goal line to count as a touch-back.

The penalties for fouls have been made more severe.

Six men only are to be upon the line of scrimmage.

A central board of control is to pass upon the qualifications and competency of all game officials.

More power is given to the officials, and it is provided that there shall be a referee, two umpires, and a linesman in all games of importance.

The new rules will be codified by Walter Camp and William T. Reid, Jr., and again submitted for ratification by the committee in final form, on April 14.

MEETINGS AND LECTURES.

The next meeting of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations will be held in California, probably in August, after the convention of the National Educational Association, which will be held in San Francisco in July. The University of California staff of agriculturalists will undertake the preparations for the meeting. A date in August or September will be peculiarly suitable for this gathering, on account of the great activities in the fruit industry and other agricultural industries in California at that time.

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The Astronomical Society of the Pacific held its regular meeting in the lecture room of the Students' Observatory on the evening of January 27. Dr. W. W. Campbell, D. D. Perrine, and W. J. Hussey, of the Lick Observatory staff, presented papers on the recent Crocker Eclipse Expedition of the Lick Observatory to Spain and Egypt. Papers were also read by other members of the society.

Dr. William Popper, of the Department of Semitic Languages, addressed the fifth meeting of the California Branch of the American Folk-lore Society on the evening of February 13. His subject was Some Superstitions of the Arabs, based on personal experiences during a year's residence in the Orient.

The Cordilleran Section of the Geological Society of America held its seventh annual meeting at the University of California on December 29 and 30, 1905.

On January 22 the Department of Zoology commenced a series of twelve illustrated public lectures on The Problems of Marine Biology, based in part upon the work of the Marine Biological Association at San Diego. An outline of the series follows:

Professor Ritter:—

January 22.—The Sea as a Home for Organisms.

January 29.—The Food Problem with Marine Organisms.

Professor Kofoid:—

February 5.—Ocean Meadows.

February 12.—Recent Progress in Marine Exploration.

February 19.—The Life of the Open Sea.

February 26.—Phosphorescence of Marine Organisms.

March 5.—The Bottom of the Sea.

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Professor Torrey:—

March 12.—The Shore.

March 19.—Sedentary Animals.

March 26.—Phases of Colonial Life.

April 2.—Corals and Coral Reefs.

April 9.—Behavior of some Shore Types.

An event of importance in the current University year was the visit of Dr. Douglas Hyde, President of the Gaelic League. Dr. Hyde is to-day the best known, the most popular, the greatest man in Ireland. His work has been, through the Gaelic League, of which he has been president since its establishment in 1893, not only to revive the national Celtic language of Ireland, but still more to de-Anglicize his country and to restore the separate nationality of the Irish. His work is one of the most extraordinary efforts of these times, and his success has been remarkable.

The generosity of Hon. James A. Phelan, of San Francisco, made possible the visit of Dr. Hyde to the University, where he delivered four lectures. The first three, given in the Harmon Gymnasium, February 14, 15, and 16, were on The Gaelic Movement, The Last Three Centuries of Irish Literature, and The Poetry of Ireland. The last of the series, on Folk Tales of Ireland, was delivered in the Harmon Gymnasium on the afternoon of March 3.

During his visit Dr. Hyde has been the guest of several members of the Faculty.

University meetings have been held this term as follows:

January 15.—Dedication of California Hall. The speakers were President Wheeler, Judge W. H. Waste, and State Senator G. R. Lukens. Judge Waste and Senator Lukens described the passage of the bill in 1904 carrying the appropriation of $250,000 for the building of California Hall. The meeting was attended by the Imperial Commissioners

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of the Chinese Government, who have come to observe conditions in the United States.

January 29.—Rev. Peter C. Yorke, Regent of the University, spoke of the work being done by the Gaelic League, and invited attention to the lectures at the University of its president, Dr. Douglas Hyde. Librarian F. J. Teggart of the Mechanics Institute, San Francisco, spoke on the work of libraries, and particularly on the recent acquisition by the University of the Bancroft Library.

February 12.—The meeting was addressed by Professor Adolph C. Miller on the life work of President Harper of Chicago University, and of Marshall Field. Dean Josiah H. Penniman of the University of Pennsylvania spoke of the true ideals of university education. President Wheeler added a few remarks on the football situation.

February 23.—Rev. F. X. Morrison spoke of the value of faith to students, and James D. Phelan, former Mayor of San Francisco, after an account of the original founding of San Francisco, spoke of the plans now being made for its adornment and future development along lines that will enhance the natural beauties of the city. These plans have been prepared by Mr. Burnham.

March 9.—The speakers were Miss Mary Shedlock, who spoke of the educative value of story-telling, illustrating her point by telling her audience two highly appreciated tales by Hans Christian Anderson; and Rabbi Jacob Nieto, who took as the text for a stirring talk the lines from Goldsmith:—

> Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
> Where wealth accumulates and men decay.

A special University meeting was held on the afternoon of Washington's Birthday, February 22, in the Greek Theatre, where addresses were delivered on the subject of International Arbitration. The speakers were: Professor Bernard Moses, Dean George Hodges of the Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Farnham P.

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Griffiths, '06, and M. E. Harrison, '08. The speaking was followed by a concert by the University Cadet Band.

The meeting was the part taken by the University of California in the general observation of Washington's Birthday by universities and colleges throughout the country, at the suggestion of the Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration. Meetings devoted to the discussion of this movement were held on this day by most of the institutions of the United States.

Addresses of interest have been made to the College of Commerce at its weekly meetings by George M. Robertson, of the local Board of Underwriters, on January 29, on Insurance Engineering; by George P. Baxter, President of the Berkeley National Bank, February 5, on The Work of the Country Bank; by F. B. Kellam, Branch Secretary of the Royal and of the Queens Insurance Companies, and President of the Fire Underwriters' Association of the Pacific, February 12, on Rate Making in Fire Insurance.

Mr. W. C. Whitney, of the Abner-Doble Company, lectured to the Associated Electrical and Mechanical Engineers February 7 on Hydro-electric Power Plants.

A meeting of the Civil Engineering Association on February 14 was addressed by Mr. John B. Leonard on Reinforced Concrete Structures in California.

Professor Bernard Moses, of the Department of History and Political Science, will be absent from the University next year, on leave. He will visit South America during his absence, and continue there his study of the history and political conditions of several South American states.

DEATH OF JIMMIE TAIT.

James Tait, better known to several generations of undergraduates as "Jimmie Potatoes," died on February 19 of blood poisoning. As janitor of North Hall for many years in days when the student body was much smaller

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than it now is, Jimmie was known to almost every man in the University, and was the good friend of every man who knew him. In later years, as a laborer on the University grounds, his circle of acquaintances became smaller, perhaps, but he was still widely known as a unique character. He had been promoted to the post of assitant janitor of California Hall just before his death.

Jimmie left a widow and two small children almost without means of support. There was also left a mortgage on his little home. As this number of the CHRONICLE goes to press, a subscription is being raised among students, alumni, and members of the faculty, to relieve the destitution of his family. Contributions to this cause may be sent to *The Daily Californian.*

The death of Jimmie removes one of the landmarks of the old days. He will be missed by many an alumnus returning to the campus after several years' absence.

THE CARNOT DEBATE.

The annual Carnot Debate was won on February 2 by Norman A. Eisner of the University of California, a Junior in the College of Letters. The decision in his favor on the part of the judges was unanimous, the impression being that the Stanford representatives were quite outclassed.

Mr. Eisner's excellent work has brought the eighth Carnot medal to the University out of a series of twelve contests. The medal went to Stanford in 1895, 1901, 1902, and 1905.

The victory was celebrated by a display of fireworks at the big C on Charter Hill.

The University of Chicago has commenced the publication of a periodical known as *Classical Philology,* of which the first number appeared in January. The board of editors is composed of well-known scholars in the foremost institutions in the country, and among the number is President Benj. Ide Wheeler.

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The Golden Bear Society held the annual memorial services in honor of Professors Joseph and John LeConte under the LeConte Oak on the afternoon of February 26.

William Raney Harper, President of the University of Chicago, died on Wednesday, January 10. Dr. Harper served as President of the University from the time of its founding until his death, a period of fourteen and a half years. A memorial number of the University of Chicago Record will be issued in recognition of the value of his life and work.

The *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions,* published at Paris, contained in its number for September-October, 1905, an appreciative account of the work of the Department of Anthropology of the University of California, written by Professor Arnold von Gennap, of which a portion is here given (in translation):

The Department of Anthropology of the University of California, at Berkeley, founded by Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst, although of recent origin, has rapidly advanced to the front rank among scientific institutions. It has published in a year and a half seven papers, each of real value. Further, as always in the United States, these papers are excellent in outward form (paper, typography, and plates), and are very reasonable in price.

ETHNOLOGICAL SURVEY.

The Ethnological and Archaeological Survey of California conducted by the Department of Anthropology has completed a fruitful investigation of the Indians of the central part of the State. For some time past the geographical distribution, tribal divisions, and dialects of the Yokuts Indians of the San Joaquin Valley and Tulare Basin have been under investigation by Dr. A. L. Kroeber of the department, who has recently returned from a final

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trip to this region, and announces the completion of the research. It appears that the Yokuts Indians sixty years ago inhabited all the valley and foothill lands from the Chowchilla River to Tehachapi Pass, and comprised forty distinct tribes, each of which spoke a different dialect. These dialects, however, were related, and prove the original unity of this group of tribes. Of the forty tribes more than fifteen have become extinct since the coming of the Americans, and only the remembrance of their name and former habitat remains. Of the surviving tribes and dialects a number are represented by single individuals, and by most of these individuals in part only, as a Yokuts Indian's parents were usually of different tribes. More than twenty dialects have, however, been recorded by Dr. Kroeber and will be permanently preserved for the study of anthropologists and linguists, together with the information secured regarding the range and habits of each tribe. A full report on the investigation is being prepared and will appear in the University of California Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology.

THE HEARST MEDICAL PAPYRUS.

The University of California has received from Leipzig a few advance copies of the first volume of its series of publications in Egyptian Archaeology. The title of the volume is The Hearst Medical Papyrus, and the series of which it is the first number is dedicated to Mrs. Phoebe Apperson Hearst, who in the interest of the University of California has borne for five years the entire financial burden of scientific expeditions in Peru, North America, and Egypt.

The volume contains the hieratic text of the medical incantations and prescriptions contained in the papyrus known as the Hearst Medical Papyrus, together with an introduction, list of incantations and prescriptions, and vocabularly containing all the words occurring in the pa-

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pyrus. The text is given in seventeen facsimile collotype plates.

The papyrus was brought to the camp of the Hearst Egyptian Expedition in the spring of 1901 by a peasant of the village where the camp was located, as a mark of his thanks for kindness shown him. The circumstances of its discovery indicate that it belongs to the period between the twelfth and eighteenth Egyptian dynasties. It shows a similarity to a papyrus known as the Ebers papyrus, but is not a duplicate.

At the time when the Hearst and Ebers papyri were written, the practical medical knowledge of the Egyptians appears to have been contained in a great number of small collections of prescriptions, probably gathered in practice by different physicians stationed in different towns or attached to different temples, and handed down partly in writing and partly by word of mouth. The Hearst papyrus, found in a mud-brick house in a provincial town, probably served as a book of reference for the local physician, and, less carefully arranged than the Ebers, seems to have been made for this purpose. The Ebers, on the other hand, coming from Thebes, bearing the marks of a riper knowledge and of a more systematic arrangement, may have been a collection belonging to some one of the great Theban priesthoods.

To the ancient Egyptian every pain and ache was subject to supernatural influence, both as to cause and cure. Every remedy, therefore, was to be prepared with due recitation of charms. There was one incantation to be used for the application of any remedy, another for any bandage, another for any healing draught. Certain more obstinate diseases were to be fought with special incantations in addition to the remedies prescribed.

The volume is the work of George A. Reisner, Hearst Lecturer in Egyptology of the University of California.

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Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, announces six annual fellowships of $300 each to students who will give their undivided time to study and investigation under the direction of the Department of Engineering. Applications for fellowships must be made to the President of Northwestern University not later than April 1, 1906.

The rates offered by the railroads to members of the National Educational Association coming to San Francisco this Summer will also be available to those who desire to attend the Summer Session of the University. From all points west of El Paso and Ogden, and south of Portland, the rate will be one fare plus $2 for the round trip. The tickets permit stopovers both coming and going, are good until September 15, and will be sold to teachers and members of their families. Arrangements are now being made by the University authorities to provide for the accommodation of visitors to the Summer Session.

THE FACULTY.

Professor Henry Morse Stephens returned in January from an absence of about six weeks, during which time he delivered a series of eleven lectures under the auspices of the Lowell Institute, in Boston. On Professor Stephens' Lowell Lectures the *Boston Transcript* made the following comment:

No more fascinating course of lectures has been delivered in Boston since the Lowell Institute has been left alone to fill the intellectual need supplied by the old Lyceum of Emerson's day than the course finished last week by Professor Henry Morse Stephens, of the University of California, on the growth of humanitarianism and its various developments of charities and corrections. Of very few courses of such length, and the lectures lacked but one of a full dozen, on a serious subject, and treated with profound thought and learning, could it be truthfully said, as was

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said of Professor Stephens' course, that it was too brief, and that the public was sorry when the lectures ended. The rare scholarship lavished upon them; the clearness and cogency of the argument and demonstration; the broad and fearless optimism, finding the state constantly taking more and more responsibility upon itself to see that the world does grow better; the implication that all the resources of society shall be freely placed at the use and behoof, especially, of the defectives and delinquents for whom society is coming to feel the sole responsibility, no longer punishing poverty, no longer charging crime to original sin, but to the constitution of society; the expansion of patriotism beyond narrow nationalism; the new interpretation of history—all this did not hold the audience, the best that Boston ever produces, more than the charm of the personality of the speaker. One felt in his person the presence of the traditional "scholar and gentleman," par excellence.

Dr. Max Uhle, who for more than six years has been connected with the University of California as Hearst Lecturer in Peruvian Archaeology and Field Director of Explorations in South America for the Department of Anthropology, has resigned his position to accept the directorship of the National Archaeological Museum of Peru. Dr. Uhle has just completed a second residence of two years in Peru for the University of California, in which period he was engaged in archaeological excavations on the coast for some distance north and south of Lima, and in the interior. His work has been conducted with the aim of determining the sequence and relations of the various periods and types of civilization in ancient Peru, and the results of his six years' labors will be published by the Anthropological Department of the University. His explorations have resulted in the formation of large collections, the value of which will be enhanced by the fact that a law forbidding the exportation of antiquities, or archaeological explorations by

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foreigners except for the benefit of the National Museum, became operative in Peru on the 1st of January, 1906.

The Annual Gold Medal of the Royal Astronomical Society of London was this year conferred upon Dr. W. W. Campbell, Director of the Lick Observatory of the University of California. The award was made in recognition of Dr. Campbell's spectroscopic researches. On behalf of Dr. Campbell, who was unable to be present at the meeting of the society, Mr. Whitelaw Reid, the Ambassador of the United States, agreed to receive and transmit the medal. There was a peculiar fitness in Mr. Reid's performing that duty, as he is the son-in-law of Mr. D. O. Mills, whose organization and equipment of expeditions has done much to assist Dr. Campbell's scheme of research.

The Astronomical Society of Mexico in January awarded a diploma and gold medal to Astronomer C. D. Perrine, of Lick Observatory, for the discovery of the sixth and seventh satellites of Jupiter.

Professor George Holmes Howison, Mills Professor of Philosophy, has been invited to deliver six lectures on Philosophy at Yale University during the month of May.

Professor W. S. Ferguson, Assistant Professor of Greek and Roman History, has been called to Cambridge to participate in the coming Summer Session of Harvard University.

Professor W. E. Ritter, of the Department of Zoology, is now abroad on leave. After several weeks at the Laboratory of the Marine Biological Association of San Diego, which is conducted under his direction at La Jolla, Professor Ritter returned for a short visit to Berkeley, during which time he delivered two of the series of lectures given by the Department of Zoology, and then left for Honolulu. His further plans include a visit to Japan and China, for the investigation of Oriental waters and the collection of specimens, and in the Summer he will attend at Marseilles the International Congress of Oceanography and Fisheries,

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where he will represent the University of California and the Marine Biological Association of San Diego.

Dr. Arthur W. Ryder, who came to Berkeley at the beginning of the year as instructor in Sanskrit and German, has been giving a most interesting course of lectures on the Sanskrit Drama, a course of particular interest to students of general literature, and to students of the drama of other countries. Dr. Ryder has also been giving two courses in the Sanskrit Language, in addition to his work as instructor in the German Department.

Professor E. J. Wilczynski will be one of the three mathematical specialists chosen by the Council of the American Mathematical Society to participate in the colloquium of the society at its Summer meeting, at Yale University in September. The colloquia are in the nature of lectures on the recent developments in the speakers' particular fields of study. Professor Wilczynski's subject will be Differential Geometry.

At the request of the United States Government, the University authorities agreed to extend the leave of absence of Professor Lincoln Hutchinson for another six months, in order to allow him to complete some investigations in South America that he is making at the request of the Department of Commerce and Labor.

THE SYMPHONY CONCERTS.

It is hard to do justice in the brief space available in the University Record to the significance of the University of California Symphony Orchestra and its series of symphony concerts. Perhaps nothing has ever been undertaken by the University of greater importance, so far as its influence upon the artistic education of the public within its reach is concerned. The great throngs that have attended the first two concerts of the series, the instant financial success of the venture, the comments of the press, the letters

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of comment and congratulation that have poured in upon the President and the other officers of the University identified with the undertaking, all show that this effort of the University to take a position of leadership in the musical life of the West is being heartily appreciated.

Some four thousand people attended the first concert, on the afternoon of Thursday, February 15. Over four thousand five hundred were present at the second concert, on the 1st of March. Both concerts were held in the Greek Theatre, the weather on both dates being nearly ideal for the purpose, although both days were preceded and followed by rain. The programmes for these concerts are given below. The series is to be continued by four more concerts, on the afternoons of March 29, April 12 and 26, the last date to be the occasion for the rendition of Handel's "Messiah" by the University Chorus of three hundred voices, accompanied by the full Symphony Orchestra.

At the inception of the symphony season, a possible deficit in the finances of the venture was offset by the generous guarantee of Mr. F. M. Smith of Oakland, who undertook to meet any deficiency. The sale of season tickets and of admission tickets to the first concert, however, made the series a pronounced financial success at the very outset, so much so that after setting aside enough to meet the first estimate of expenses for the series there remained sufficient for adding twelve musicians to the orchestra, with a surplus besides.

FIRST CONCERT, FEBRUARY 15.

The Second Brandenburg Concerto ..... *Bach*
(With solos for flute, oboe, trumpet, and violin.)
Allegro moderato. Andante. Allegro.

The First Symphony ..... *Beethoven*
Adagio molto.—Allegro con brio. Andante cantabile con moto. Menuetto: allegro molto e vivace. Adagio.—Allegro molto e vivace.

Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg ..... *Wagner*
Introduction to the Third Act; Dance of the Apprentices; Procession of the Mastersingers; and Greeting to Hans Sachs.

Ouverture Solennelle ("1812") ..... *Tschaikowsky*

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SECOND CONCERT (MOZART FESTIVAL), MARCH 1.

Symphony in G Minor ..... *Mozart*
Allegro molto. Andante. Menuetto: allegretto. Allegro assai.
Menuetto from the Jupiter Symphony ..... *Mozart*
Allegretto.
Menuetto from the Symphony in E flat ..... *Mozart*
Allegro.
Overture to the Magic Flute ..... *Mozart*
Adagio.—Allegro.

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Siegfried Idyl ..... *Wagner*
Overture to "Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes" ..... *Wagner*

THIRD CONCERT, MARCH 15.

Symphony in C ..... *Schubert*
Prelude to "Lohengrin" ..... *Wagner*
Overture to "Der Freischütz" ..... *Weber*
From "The Damnation of Faust" ..... *Berlios*
Minuet of the Will o' the Wisps. Ballet of the Sylphs. Hungarian March.

FOURTH CONCERT, MARCH 29.

From the Military Symphony ..... *Haydn*
Allegretto. Menuetto.
Overture to "Coriolanus" ..... *Beethoven*
Overture to "Midsummernight's Dream" ..... *Mendelssohn*
Symphonie pathétique ..... *Tschaikowsky*
Adagio.—Allegro non troppo. Allegro con grazia. Allegro molto vivace. Finale: Adagio lamentoso.
Prelude: "Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg" ..... *Wagner*

THE HALF-HOUR OF MUSIC.

December 17.—Mr. Charles Dutton, pianist; Miss Virginia Goodsell, soprano; and Mr. John Metcalf, composer and pianist.

January 14.—The vested choir of St. Mark's Episcopal Church of Berkeley, under the direction of Mr. Roscoe Warren Lucy, organist and choirmaster, with the aid as soloists of Miss Ethel Jones, Miss Olive Morrish, Mr. Whitney Palache, '85, and Mr. Frederick Peak.

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January 28.—Mr. Henry Larsen, violinist, and Mrs. J. P. LeFevre, pianist.

February 4.—The vested choir of Trinity Episcopal Church of San Francisco, under the direction of Mr. Louis H. Eaton, with the aid as soloists of Miss Elsie Arden, contralto, Miss Millie Flynn, soprano, and Mr. Charles Trowbridge, tenor.

February 11.—The University of California Glee Club, Mr. Clement P. Rowlands, baritone, and Mr. J. J. Rhea, tenor.

February 18.—Mr. William C. Davis, violinist.

February 25.—The Treble Clef Club of the University of California, under the direction of Mr. Clinton R. Morse, '96.

March 4.—The University Cadet Band, conducted by Mr. S. Frederick Long, Jr., '07.

March 11.—Mr. Albert I. Elkus, pianist and composer, in a programme of his own compositions.

The University Orchestra (not to be confused with the Symphony Orchestra, which is composed of professional musicians) was reorganized at the beginning of the year, and a provision made whereby persons not connected with the University were admitted to membership. This was found advisable in order to secure larger numbers, and also raise the standard of the music that the orchestra could undertake to render.

The University Orchestra, which is under the instruction of Professor Wolle, is thus composed of students and others who are amateur musicians.

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THE GRADUATES.

The UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE aims to be of interest and of use to the graduates of the University. This object it can accomplish by bringing to them at regular intervals a record of the significant activities of the University, by publishing addresses and papers of members of its faculty that are deemed to have some permanent interest, and also by notes of the Alumni, their work and interests.

The compiler of the items gathered for this department of the CHRONICLE feels their present inadequacy. This, however, will be remedied. The CHRONICLE, as a matter of fact, is not in a position this year to take up this department at all. The great stimulation of alumni interest, however, brought about by the recent distribution of the Directory of Graduates, has seemed to demand that some preparation, at least, be made for bringing the CHRONICLE into the service of the Graduates.

The UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE is not in any sense a student publication. It is an official organ of the University, published at the expense of the University, and under the direction of a committee of its faculty. The work of the University makes such an organ necessary. Its publication dates from 1898. If there had been some such organ for the years preceding the establishment of the CHRONICLE, much valuable material, now lost, would have been preserved for future students of the history of the institution.

The CHRONICLE would supply a distinct need if it were but published and stored among the archives of the University. There is a necessity, and a great one, for something

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more than that. The University of California is growing as it never has before, growing intensively as well as extensively. Together with its growth in exterior things, such as new buildings, new departments, and the like, there is going on a change in the very spirit and fibre of the institution. This change is one that not only should not estrange the old graduate, but on the other hand should prove the greatest stimulus to his interest in the University, and particularly to his sense of obligation towards it. In the fact that he bears its name, the graduate of the University of twenty years ago has become endowed with all the accumulations of these years in the honor and prestige of his Alma Mater. These are as much his as they are the endowment of the most recent graduate, and they entail the same obligations.

The UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE offers one of the means by which the graduates of the University of California can keep in touch with its life and growth. The subscription price is nominal, it is within the reach of all, and it goes with the spirit of the University in its pages.

It is to be regretted that the speech of Senator Lukens, of the class of 1889, and President of the Alumni Association, made on the occasion of the Charter Day exercises on March 23, is not available for publication. His subject was, How to be an Alumnus. The spirit in Mr. Lukens should be in all the Alumni. It is hoped that the substance of his remarks may be published in the next issue of the CHRONICLE.

The following letter has been received by A. C. Skaife, '00, who compiled the Directory of Graduates, from D. A. Gordenker, '01:—

DAUIN, Or., Negros, January 29, 1906.

MY DEAR SKAIFE:—

Into my slough of too much lonely living, your Directory of Graduates came to me as a reminder that I am still a member of the University of California. To those who, like you, run over to the old

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college on the by-days, or when the whim so moves them, I suppose the sense of connection has never materially weakened. But to me, isolated from all old college associations, the University has become a pleasant, but very dim, memory. * * * I suppose there are any number of graduates who have drifted into the same attitude. Great then is your service to us and to the University. I, for one, feel that I have been gathered back into the fold, and I doubt not that your Directory has performed the same service for a large number of others.

It was a great pleasure for me to trace the careers of my classmates and acquaintances. It seems to me a matter of regret that the Faculty was not included. I believe that a Directory of all the members of the Faculty, past and present, would be of great value and interest to all graduates.

It is now four years since I left the States. For a year or two the Occident kept me in touch with matters. Then its visits ceased, and except from an occasional letter I have had no news of the University. Of course, this has been due entirely to my own negligence, as I should have subscribed to the CHRONICLE, or Magazine. This I shall not fail to do in the future. Perhaps a few sample copies sent out to graduates would bring many others into closer connection.

With congratulations on your excellent work on behalf of the Alumni and with best wishes for your continued success, I remain,

Sincerely yours,
D. A. GORDENKER.

It may be noted here, referring to this letter, that a Catalogue of the Academic Senate, containing the names and dates and titles of all members of the Faculty, from the founding of the University until May, 1905, has been compiled by Professor W. A. Merrill, and was published as a supplement to the UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE. It does not, however, contain addresses. Any graduate of the University may obtain a copy by applying to the Manager of the University Press.

Several hundred sample copies of the CHRONICLE have been sent out to the Alumni, but the work has not been completed, and every Alumnus will eventually be given an opportunity of seeing what the UNIVERSITY CHRONICLE is.

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All Alumni will subscribe to Mr. Gordenker's appreciation of the value to the University of Mr. Skaife's painstaking compilation of the Directory of Graduates.

The work of arranging the returns received from the Alumni in response to the request for address cards sent out in the Directory of Graduates has proven to be considerable. A large number of the books have been returned to the University through the Post Office, showing that the Directory is by no means infallible; which nobody has expected that it could be. It is an admirable starting point, however, for a card catalogue of the graduates, and the card catalogue will be kept as accurate as possible by circulars, which will discover changes of address at least annually.

One of the first circulars to be issued will probably be a list of the Alumni who have been "lost." It may be some months before this can be sent out, but when it is, the assistance of all to whom it comes will be very much appreciated. At any time notices of changed addresses may be sent, addressed Directory of Graduates, President's Office, University of California.

ALUMNI NOTES.

A. P. Matthew, '03, now at the Harvard Law School, a member of the Intercollegiate Debating Team in his Senior year, qualified for the Harvard debating team that defeated Yale this year.

Max Thelen, '04, is also a student at the Harvard Law School this year.

C. H. Rowlands, '02, has been located at Tonopah, Nevada, for a year or more past. He visited the University in February.

Ernest A. Bailey, '03, is in charge of construction work for the Santa Cruz Portland Cement Company. The company is building a large plant in the vicinity of the University's last Summer School surveying camp, and Bailey is superintending the laying of the foundations.

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Arthur H. Markwart, '03, and Harold R. Ebright, December, '05, are in the employment of the Syndicate Water Company, which is engaged in extensive development work near Berkeley.

Tracy R. Kelley, who for a number of years has been instructor in English at the Lowell High School, San Francisco, has accepted a position in the English Department of the Imperial University at Canton, China. Mr. Kelley left California for his new position in January.

Edward C. Baker, '05, received recently an appointment as U. S. Vice-Consul at Foo Chow, China. Baker graduated from the College of Commerce last May, made a specialty of corporation finance while in college, and in his Senior year represented the University on the Carnot debating team.

Wang Chien Tsu, December, '05, left the University with the Chinese Imperial Commissioners who were here in January. Mr. Tsu was at the University under government scholarships from China, was registered in the College of Commerce, but did a large portion of his work in the courses in mining engineering. He will serve the Imperial Commission during their stay in this country in the capacity of Secretary to Tuan Fang, the highest official of the Commission, and will later resume his studies at Columbia University.

A. V. Saph, '94, engineer in the Geological Survey at Hazen, Nevada, is engaged in important structural work for the reclamation service. The demand for men in the engineering field is emphasized by a request from Dr. Saph recently for the names of seniors or undergraduates in civil engineering who will soon be available for field and office work.

Everett E. Adams, '04, a graduate of the College of Civil Engineering, is chief of a party of five hundred men in the employ of the Southern Pacific Company, near Bakersfield, California. This party is engaged in laying pipe

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lines from the oil fields of Kern County to Point Richmond. Until recently Adams was assistant to Professor Howard, of the Department of Architecture.

Hubert G. Baugh, '03, writes to Professor John Fryer, of the Department of Oriental Languages, from Pekin, where he is in the United States Legation as interpreter. His work began there in August of last year, and Mr. Baugh expresses himself as well pleased with his work. Mr. Baugh's letter shows no apprehension on his part about the rumored disturbances and dangers in China.

Charles T. Dozier, '02, until recently Assistant in Assaying in the College of Mining, has left the University to take charge of metallurgical work for the Rich Gulch Mining Company, in Shasta County. Since graduation Mr. Dozier has been associated with Professor Christy, of the Mining Department, in research work.

J. C. Claussen, '98, spent a few days at the University in February, on his way to Yuma, Arizona, where he has taken a position as irrigation engineer in the employment of the Government.

M. N. Alling, '03, is in California at present, but in June expects to return to Alaska, where he has been engaged in civil engineering work.

Adolph Judell, '01, a graduate of the College of Civil Engineering, for the past year and a half has been chief engineer of the Nevada Northern Railway, engaged in constructing some hundred miles of standard-gauge railroad in eastern Nevada. Mr. Judell's headquarters are at Toano, Nevada.

E. A. Gibbs, '05, is now a graduate student and instructor in Civil Engineering at Cornell University.

Arthur F. Kales, '03, is located at 72 Broadway, New York, as consulting engineer for the Alabama Consolidated Coal and Iron Company, assistant engineer for the New York and Brooklyn Railroad Company, and Secretary and Treasurer of the Trinity Zink, Lead, and Smelting Company.

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Bryan Bell, '03, is also in New York, as office manager of The Iron Age. Bell and Kales have rooms at 19 West Seventeenth street, New York, and their apartments are a sort of New York headquarters for University of California men.

J. S. Bright, '01, is County Surveyor of San Bernardino County, with headquarters at Redlands, California.

The University of California Club of Los Angeles meets monthly for a mid-day luncheon. At the meeting held on February 10 the following men signed the roster which was sent to the CHRONICLE:

'88, W. J. Variel; '89, D. W. Edelman; '91, John A. Brewer, Horace C. Head (Santa Ana); '92, George P. Robinson; '94, Harry W. Rhodes (U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey); '95, C. J. Fox, Jr.; '97, Charles E. Weaver; '98, Birney H. Donnell, E. P. Wellman; ex-'98, Henry M. Newmark; '99, C. Weston Clark, W. B. Scott; ex-'00, I. J. Muma; '01, Edward A. Dickson, James O. Osborn; '02, Marco R. Newmark; '03, B. F. Kierulff, Jr.; ex-'03, W. C. Smith; '04, Louis H. Dyke (Amalie, Cal.), H. C. Gardett, Irving S. Metzler, E. H. Sawyer, Thomas E. Stanton, G. Gaylord Watson; '05, Joseph W. Gastrich, Frank Gillilen, George B. Gillson, Joseph P. Loeb, Owen S. Adams, Douglas T. Adams, V. C. Stumpf; ex-'06, Leo P. Bergin, W. G. Dandy, Rowe Sanderson; ex-'07, Reginald Balmer; L ex-'86, Ed. North; L '93, Albert A. Caldwell; M '98, Niel C. Trew.

On the eve of Charter Day, the Los Angeles Club met at a banquet at Levy's Café. President William J. Variel, '88, acted as toastmaster. The toasts were as follows: Max Lowenthal, '81, The Old College Days; Harry Mayberry, '89, The College Rush; W. W. Brier, '82, Many Years Ago; Leslie R. Hewitt, '90, Alma Mater; William T. Craig, '89, The College Newspaper; John M. Eshleman, '02, A Message from the North; Dr. A. L. Kelsey, '83, The Professions. An address was then delivered by Professor Adolph C. Miller,

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'87, the guest of the evening, and delegated by President Wheeler to represent the faculty. Professor Miller was unanimously elected an honorary member of the Los Angeles Club.

The sum of twenty-six dollars was collected at the banquet to be sent to the "Jimmie Potatoes" fund. The following officers were then elected: President, Leslie R. Hewitt, '90; Vice-President, Max Lowenthal, '81; Secretary, Marco R. Newmark, '02; member of the Executive Committee, William J. Variel, '88. Aside from the speakers mentioned, the roster signed at the banquet contains these names: John A. Brewer, '91, C. A. Allin, '94, Charles E. Carver, '97, Birney Donnell, '98, W. B. Scott, '99, J. O. Downing and W. Joseph Ford, '00, Charles M. Coleman, '01, William R. Durbin and Marco R. Newmark, '02, W. H. Dehm, Charles B. Jones, Joseph P. Loeb, and V. C. Stumpf, '05, Niel C. Trew, M '98, A. P. Lazarus, J. H. Russell, W. W. Winn, ex-'96; J. S. Montague, D. '05; Leo. P. Bergin, '06; Irving S. Metzler, '04; S. B. Stanton, '06; E. C. Peck, ex-'05; T. D. Allin, ex-'90; George P. Robinson, '92; J. M. Dikeman, ex-'89; G. Walter Monroe, '00; J. W. Siraninck, L '86; Edwin A. Meserve, L '86; D. W. Edelman, '89; Edward North, L ex-'86; S. M. Haskins, '93; H. G. Parker, '90; Robert Newmark, '02; C. J. Fox, Jr., '95; Leopold Oppenheimer, ex-'04; George B. Gillson, '05; Johnson C. Lindsay, '07; Frank H. McConnell,—; Melville Dozier, '99; I. J. Muma, ex-'00; Julian Adams, '05; R. H. Merrill, '04; G. Gaylord Watson, '04; H. C. Gardett, '04; W. S. Sessions, '01.

ENGAGEMENTS AND MARRIAGES.

The engagement has been announced of Professor Harry A. Overstreet, '99, and Miss Elsie Burr, of the same class. Professor Overstreet is now Assistant Professor in the Department of Philosophy.

Monroe Deutsch, '02, at present connected with the

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faculty of the Berkeley High School, and Miss Alice L. Feder, of San Francisco, have recently announced their engagement.

The engagement of Leon L. Roos, '98, and Miss Leslie Meyerfield, of San Francisco, has been announced.

Miss Katherine Johnson, of 1903, and Mr. Frederick F. Hall, Cornell, '99, were married on the afternoon of March 20, in San Francisco.

The marriage was announced in February of Homer C. Parker, '98, and Miss Bernice Thomson, formerly of Napa. Their home will be in San Francisco, where Mr. Parker has recently been appointed district manager of the Stanley Electric Company.

William L. Finley, '03, and Miss Nellie Irene Barnhardt, of the same class, were married at the home of the bride's parents in Santa Monica, on February 21. While an undergraduate, Mr. Finley was Editor of the Daily Californian, and a member of the Order of the Golden Bear. Since his graduation, Mr. Finley has become well known as a magazine writer and lecturer on bird life, and has recently made arrangements for the publication of a book on bird life in the West.

The engagement of Cleland W. Rohrer, '04, and Miss Alice Collier, of '03, was recently announced. Mr. Rohrer is a graduate of the College of Mechanics, and is located in San Francisco.

Clifford P. Bowie, '04, and Miss Alicia Frances Jones, ex-'07, have announced their engagement. Mr. Bowie was one of the first members of the Abracadabra Club of the University, and now holds a position in the City Engineer's Office, in San Francisco.

The marriage was announced in December last of Dr. Ralph H. Curtiss, '01, and Miss Mary E. Fitch, of San Francisco. The wedding took place at Allegheny, Pennsylvania, where Dr. Curtiss was recently appointed Assistant Astronomer at the Allegheny Observatory. Mrs. Cur-

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tiss is the daughter of George Hamlin Fitch, of the San Francisco *Chronicle.*

Harry L. Cornish, '01, was married in January to Miss Beatrice Quikaca. Cornish was center on the football teams of '97, '98, and '99, and is a graduate of the College of Mining.

OBITUARY.

Stanley R. Symmes, '04, died Saturday, March 10, in Oakland. Symmes was a member of the Delta Kappa Epsilon Fraternity, and of the Skull and Keys, Winged Helmet, and Golden Bear societies, a brother of Harold S. Symmes, '99, Leslie W. Symmes, '03, and Mabel Symmes, '96.

Leander L. Hawkins, Ph.B. (Engineering), '73, C.E., '79, died suddenly in Portland, on Sunday, March 11. Colonel Hawkins came from Nevada to California, and was one of the twelve graduates of the class of '73, of which Professor G. C. Edwards is also a member. Mr. Hawkins was at one time instructor in Mathematics and Surveying in the University, and was Assistant Librarian when the Library was located in Oakland.

Mr. Hawkins was a prominent citizen of the city of Portland, and the editorial columns of the Portland press paid many tributes to his memory.

The death of Mr. Hawkins reduces the membership of his class to nine.

Word was received on March 20 of the death of Roy Grieve, '03. Mr. Grieve was chief electrician at the Mt. Bullion Mine, in Mariposa County, and it was while at work in the mine that he received a shock from the wires, causing his death.

THE SECOND GENERATION CLUB.

There has been organized among the undergraduates of the University a society known as the Second Generation Club. The club is composed of students whose parents

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have been students in the University. There are about fifty members at the present time.

The object of the club is to foster among the students an interest in the history and historical associations of California, to perpetuate the traditions of her past, and to bring the Alumni into closer touch with the undergraduates' activities.

The officers of the club at present are: President, Ralph Palmer Merritt, '07; Vice-President, Robert McMurray Searls, '07; Secretary-Treasurer, Carmelita Dolores Riley, '07; Archivist, Virginia Charlotte Frank, '06.

The women of the class of 1901 have organized, and meet twice a year, once in the spring for a luncheon, and each winter for the election of officers. In January a large number of the women of this class were entertained by Miss Elizabeth Scupham, the Secretary of their organization, at her home in Oakland.

THE ALUMNI HALL FUND.

The report of the Secretary of the Alumni Hall Fund to the Council of the Alumni Association, dated January 27, 1906, shows in great detail the condition of this fund at that date. A summary of the state of the fund, with collections and disbursements since June 1, 1901, is given as follows:

Total collected			$3,928.50
Amount turned over to the Regents		$3,000.00	
Salary of Secretary	$537.50		
Printing, stationery, and stamps	223.50		
Miscellaneous	3.75		
Total expense		764.75	
In bank, January 27, 1906		163.75	
		$3,928.50	$3,928.50

The total subscriptions to the Alumni Hall Fund amount to $12,944.50. The expenses of administration have so far amounted to about 20 per cent. of the sum collected, and to 5.8 per cent. of the sum subscribed.

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Beginning with 1873, every class is represented by subscriptions. There is one subscriber each for '65 and '66, each of which classes has three surviving graduates. The class of 1895 holds first place in the number of subscribers in proportion to the number in the class, 29 out of 116, or 26 per cent. The class of 1880 leads in the amount subscribed, $1,407, 1900 being second, with $1,195. There are in all 344 subscribers to the Alumni Hall Fund, out of a total of 6,300 who are graduates of the University. There are 11 subscribers to the 2,500-odd graduates of the Professional Schools, leaving 333 to the 3,800 graduates of the Academic Colleges. The classes of 1902, 1903, 1904, and 1905 have so far contributed fifteen subscribers.

The recent circular to the Alumni sent out with the Directory of Graduates produced new subscriptions to the amount of $1,587 at the date of the report, from 53 persons. Of this, $107 was subscribed for the expenses of administering the fund, and $1,480 for the fund itself.

The following table shows the sums subscribed and the sums paid by each class, at the date of the report:

Class.	Subscribers.	Amount.	Paid.
1865	1	$500.00	$500.00
1866	1	120.00	
1873	4	166.00	21.00
1874	2	450.00	200.00
1875	5	323.00	203.00
1876	6	190.00	106.00
1877	2	80.00	11.00
1878	4	100.00	11.00
1879	10	345.00	119.00
1880	8	1,407.00	209.00
1881	2	40.00	6.00
1882	6	566.00	467.00
1883	4	100.00	11.00
1884	1	20.00	20.00
1885	7	300.00	91.00
1886	5	270.00	75.00
1887	7	200.00	116.00
1888	8	550.00	110.00

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Class.	Subscribers.	Amount.	Paid.
1889	7	335.00	101.00
1890	7	150.00	66.00
1891	7	370.00	84.00
1892	11	332.00	77.00
1893	12	390.00	115.00
1894	10	220.00	44.00
1895	29	856.00	259.00
1896	27	686.50	151.50
1897	14	410.00	90.00
1898	21	582.00	108.00
1899	28	541.00	164.00
1900	33	1,195.00	228.00
1901	29	620.00	121.00
1902	2	60.00	
1903	5	140.00	1.00
1904	2	20.00	
1905	5	175.00	3.00

The Alumni Hall Fund affords splendid opportunity for good work by class organizations. The fund is but started; the near future will see it begin to grow.

The Alumni Hall is to be the contribution of the graduates to the scheme of the Greater University. It is to be one of the most frequented and most popular buildings on the campus. It will be the headquarters of all the undergraduate University organizations, will contain the offices and libraries of the undergraduate publications, as well as reading rooms and lounging rooms for general undergraduate use. It will fill the thoughts of every undergraduate who enters it with the memory of the classes that have gone out and have sent back from across the years this building as their tribute to the University that made them. Its presence will animate future classes, as nothing now here can precisely do, with that feeling of obligation to the University which it is the pride of the right-minded alumnus to feel.

The Alumni Hall will also be headquarters for visiting graduates, especially on public days. To have such a place upon the grounds should be the hope and ambition of every graduate.

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University Chronicle

Vol. VIII JUNE, 1906 No. 4

HYLETHEN

A

LYRICAL MISSIVE

BY

ISAAC FLAGG

(1896)[1]

SCHEME

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[1] A part of this poem (the Description of California on pp. 244, 245) was read at one of the University meetings in 1903.

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TO

H. H. C.

'From the forest' *when we speak,*
Sounds Hylêthen *in the Greek*:
But the promptings fine,
That upon the soul (we *know*)
From the forest subtly flow,
No ancient might divine.

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ALL-TOO swiftly to its end
That soft summer-eve, sweet friend,
  Sank behind us. We,
Half round in our saddles turn'd,
Where its dying splendours burn'd,
  Gazed regretfully;
Half, adown the hedge-crown'd hill,
Wistful, would press forward still—
  But a warning star
Glimmer'd in the deepening blue;
Quench'd the changeful flush, that threw,
  Feebly mirror'd, far
Backward its faint borrow'd glow.
Then we, silently and slow,
  Took our backward way.
Toward night-woven leaf and limb,
Broider'd on the pale gold rim
  Of the vanish'd day,
Thro' moist fragrant air, we rode.
On the bridle-hand, now, flow'd
  The dim-spreading stream;
Stole now, gently voiceful, o'er
Our grave silence. But, before,
  When, in a sunny dream
Of young pleasure, we sprang forth,
Spurning the firm rain-wash'd earth
  Under iron-shod feet;

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Then, our mutual voices drown'd
That low lakeward-murmuring sound.
  Then, the briar-rose sweet
Beckon'd, with her winsome smile,
(Hid her treacherous thorn the while);
  And the green roadway,
Each new darkling turn it took,
Show'd of fairy-land a nook
  Wreathed in forest-spray—
Tempting, part sun-pierced, part gloom.
Each emerging height we clomb,
  Whence anew the fair
Afternoon horizon crept
(From the distance where it slept)
  O'er the vision, there,
On its drowsy quivering line,
Cloud-indented, seem'd to shine
  Spire and citadel
Of some blissful region, blent
In hues of eld and orient.—
  Thus, till night-dews fell
And the star its warning sped,
We, dear friend, unwearied
  In sweet colloquy;
As the day, serene; its mood
Strong, our fancy to delude;
  Would the thought put by
Of the parting that impended,
Of all, that with that last eve ended.

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Not by the sun-lit hour
  Be my farewell spoken!
Not, when on brake and bower
  Day beams unbroken!
Not with the throstle's glee;
Not, while the brown wild-bee
  In honey'd ecstasy
Probes the unfolded flower!

But, when the lull'd redbreast
  No more his serenading
Pipes to the crimson west,
  Fast in sable fading;
After the pale primrose,
Her chalice fain to close,
Slumbers in chaste repose;
  And the night-wind, sighing
Like a wandering spirit lone,
In plaintive undertone
  To leafy tongues replying
Some troubled tale would tell,
Then would I say farewell—
  All its implying,
With weird re-whisper'd spell:
Farewell—Farewell.

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BLEST be the years!—that, reaper-like, sure-bladed,
Do store and make, the while they seem to mar;
Veil'd messengers, whose tones, all sorrow-shaded,
Yet, to console, divinely potent are.

Low-shorn the field, wilted the tassel'd flower,
Spill'd the once brimming crystal vase may lie:
But life and loss, time-wedded, hold their dower
Of balm that heals, of beams that sanctify.

Soonest for him, who, of all breath and being,
Of all in all, but feels himself a part;
And, from frail transient ties his pulses freeing,
Lies closest to the universal heart.

His, to inform, to inspire, a view out-vying
The warm life-vision of the proud Hellene:
Not, with pure-human eye, self-deifying,
Nature thro' man, but man thro' nature seen.

Cull we, from groves sublime, a rarer guerdon
Than on his brow the palm-crown'd ancient wore;
Chanting, with fuller heart, a deeper burden—
To find in man not less, in nature more.

PAEAN

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As of a wider wisdom chasten'd, humbly,
Yet with more ample and profounder voice,
To swell, no hamlet-hymn'd *io triumphe*,
But, to the nations, χαίρετε, REJOICE.

Rejoice to live, each spirit-sharing creature;
Make green the waste of intellect jejune:
Reflect Earth's every life-illumined feature;
To her pure symphony your chords attune.

So, with well-measuring hand, some compensation
For that she takes shall Nature give again:
From the drain'd chalice conjure reparation,
As looms the sun-limn'd Iris thro' the rain.

Who knows, when finding earliest forbidden
That which is sorest craved, what recompense
May for the sear'd white-calcined flesh be hidden
In the fell furnace of experience?

Answer the wind-swept seed, by millions wasted,
To save one tender germ-uplifting leaf;
The brief-lived fly; the myriad fruits untasted;
The stalk flung to the fire, the garner'd sheaf.

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There is no loss! The gentle child, untimely
  Snatch'd from sweet mirth, all-spotless, to the tomb,
Itself wept not: the claims it touch'd sublimely
  Of those that stay or follow. So, from that gloom,

For us, thro' storms of selfish thought combated,
  Shines a redeeming light, unseen before:
It, to the sun-ascending pile hath added
  Of Peace, the many-mansion'd, one stone more.

On the slow way, where many a shadow hovers,
  Darkening, deluding, deem him happy thrice,
To whom, full-soon, some heaven-sent hand discovers
  The late-learn'd benison of sacrifice.

The woman to the man: endued more gently;
  Younger in years, yet surer of their worth:
Whose firm maieutic touch beneficently
  Guides the clogg'd spirit to its fairer birth.

Thus, the life-realm through, opposites inwreathing,
  Then first springs an ensphered and perfect whole,
When the sublime succumbs, intense and seething,
  To the calm beautiful, its antipole.

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Ay, beautiful and faithful! Not with reasons,
  Weigh'd in cold thought: but with high hopes, that lead
By beacon flames, straight-tending, as the seasons,
  One to another, immutable, succeed.

So, summer-wing'd, to me, as, love-led, follow
  (Truest of friends), sure-pinion'd, to their homes
Dove mothers, or the zephyr-mated swallow
  Speeds to his clime, your fond true greeting comes.

A tress of fern, 'mid mindful words enfolded;
  Pendants of unforgotten columbine:
Frail earthly types, by loving fingers moulded
  To emblems of a constancy divine.

Now, therefore, in due turn, while yet unbroken
  Hangs the link'd heart-chain these mute years along,
Let this unprison'd voice their wealth betoken—
  My late thank-offering of sincerest song,

That, on a dream-sown motley life-path weaving,
  I send you, like some dark-leaved coronal,
Starr'd with pale blossoms. Even so believing,
  Read mingled requiem and madrigal.

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Ay, think anon
Of wreath-laid tables at a bridal feast,
Under soft-glowing lamps: with smilax, winding
Its waxen tracery hither and thither, between
Wine-cup and silver flagon; fruits heap'd high
In mellow pyramids; and many a vase
Clasping white lilies, or, with fresh-clipt stem,
Roses, deep-hued, that cannot choose but pour
Their rich defloured fragrance on the warm
Silk-shaded air. Forth are the banqueters,
Refresh'd, in gay dance-measures to renew
The night-sped revelry. But a fair young guest,
Lingering by chance there thoughtfully alone,
Would from the relinquish'd board lift a green spray
And pin to her bosom—when, thro' the corridors,
Fine strains of dulcet strings came stealing, and touch'd
A vibrant chord in her pure heart. Spell-bound
By that sweet marriage-music, thrill'd she stood,
With parted lips, one hand uplifted; and her eyes
Seem'd not to see what met them, but thro' all,
In dreamy thought, to gaze toward some far land,
Unvisited, unknown.—Her then the poet
Markëd, himself, too, midway tarrying, where
By the half-open door her white robe shone;
And, in his fancy, above the mirthful crowd
Soaring apart, with swift words did essay
To paint her reverie.

Stephane

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I look'd on a brimming fountain,
With its waters upwelling for aye:
They were black in the shadow of even;
They were bright in the lustre of day.

Not a flower by its margent mirror'd,
But with fairest petal smiled;
Not a bird 'neath the verdure, but warbled
His fondest carol wild.

Each wind to his silent hollow
Had sped, with a murmur low;
While the wrinkled hill-tops glimmer'd
In the sleepy noonday glow.

A maiden knelt, with a ewer,
From the limpid source to fill,
And its depths they were strong to woo her,
That she gazed with a transport still.

From the thirsty forest-mazes
A chase-worn huntsman came;
But drank not—for the spell beguiled him,
Of a rapture he could not name.

And they seem'd to wait and to wonder
If their vision should vanish away,
As I look'd on the brimming fountain,
With its waters upwelling for aye.

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In such words did the poet
Pourtray the vision of the fair young guest—
Her vision and his own. For, from that hour,
Round her bright image his warm fancy moved,
As moves Orion round the Cynosure.
Not of the earth she seem'd: so radiant
Was her clear forehead; such ethereal glory
Stream'd from the sunny halo of her hair.
Yet in her nature fain would he discern
Much, to his own congenial. Not, indeed,
The questioning intellect; but a kindred soul,
Thrilling with pure emotions. Framed for love,
Love tender, deep, and inexhaustible
As a perennial rivulet, that hides
Its source from the long sultry plains it waters,
In the cool shadow of eternal hills.
This the years show'd him. Now, he but divined
Its subtile sympathies; and, by their breath
Inspired, in fervent choriambs gave voice
To his exalted mood.

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Child of the skies,
  Maid,—as thou art;
Star of mine eyes,
  Heaven of my heart:

Draw thou but near,
  All, all is light!
But disappear,—
  Lo, it is night!

Day binds a gem
  Over Night's brow
(My diadem,
  Beauty, art thou);

And, when he hides
  Love's sign away,
Twilight abides,
  Saved of its ray.

So come thy smile
  Oft, as my dawn:
Light me the while
  Thoughts of thee gone.

Star of mine eyes,
  Heaven of my heart:
Fair as the skies,
  Maiden, thou art.

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Celestial forms
Did to their mortal worshipers, of old,
Descend. As when, to Latmos' stilly slopes,
The pale moon-goddess, from her heavenly home,
In waves of rippling phosphor glided down
And kiss'd Endymion's slumber-shaded cheek.
With us abide, not differently (tho' themselves
Unknowing, and unknown, the while they stay),
Spirits of light, sometime, along this wayfare,
That in abysmal mystery began,
And tends we know not whither. But, anon,
Their gracious mission once fulfill'd, they must
Return, to prove that they were lent, not given.
Thus was the poet taught (what he, ofttimes,
As of mere human texture, would forget),
When helpless on the farther verge he stood.—
Not till long after could he pen the scene,
That they might read and profit by its lore,
Who need the lesson.

Watch and wait, with bated breath;
'T is the border-land of death.

See, upon her upturn'd eyes
A strange outward dimness lies;

For, within they seek a light
Hidden from our grosser sight.

Our hush'd voices she hears not:
Rapt is all her spirit-thought,

Hearkening, how it may respond
To the summons from beyond.

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Oh, if in other spheres there be
A supernal harmony,

Breathed to hovering souls, that list
Under skies of amethyst,

She but aspires, now, to turn
The terrestrial sojourn

Into something of the same
As with her life earthward came.—

Yes, the trembling breath has past:
That faint-drawn sigh was the last.—

Such release kind Nature brings,
When the sun-born insect springs

To new, bright-wing'd fields of bliss,
Fluttering from the chrysalis.

But, as in the wreathed sea-shell
A far echo seems to dwell,

Of some solemn wave-lapt shore,
Caught and held for evermore,

So I know that I shall hear
That sigh, in my mindful ear,

Till I, too, am call'd to stand
On the mystic border-land.

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First in after years,
When the long arrow-flight of time had spann'd
The middle distance, found he a new strength
The warning of those moments to record.
For then, when freshly that slight form was laid,
To share the slumbers of the silent dead,
Under chill snow not whiter than her face,
Rose, mingled with the vacant agony
And pang of absence, a strange fear, lest he
Had not done well his part; not at each time
Touch'd the right chord. No thoughts, no phantasies
Came at behest: but, uninvoked, unbidden,
Sang the death-minstrel, with infernal choir,
Shrilling, as wolves howl by the wintry edge
Of Ural wildernesses.—'T were enough
To bide, firm-lipp'd, till the fell pack, outwearied,
Slink into silence.—Comes the gray dawn first,
Haunted by lingering voices of the night;
Then, thro' its vapours, one warm beam, that wakes
Old memories and new purpose.

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Methought I stood by a mountain grand,
And the sea crept up to its flinty strand.

I heard no sound in that region lone
But the waves and their weary monotone.

The mountain moved, as it were in sleep,
And stirr'd the waters of all the deep;

And a surge swang mightily to and fro,
And now rose louder, and now sank low.

Then floated the ringing tones between
Of a lyre, swept by a hand unseen.

Sweet and solemn they seem'd to glide
From caverns dark in the mountain-side,

Till the billows ceased to beat at the shore,
And wearily murmur'd the waves, as before.

But long in my ear an echo rang
Of the throe, and the surge, and the lyre's clang.

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Immortal poesy!
The music of life's morning—when the child seer
Stands by the shore, clear-eyed; and, gazing toward
The sun-fed sources of his being, hearkens
To faint Aeolian melodies, that float
Over green waters from the gates of pearl.
All-searching language of the soul; to all
Tongues common; from all bosoms breathed, that nigh
To the wellsprings of mystery have lain,
Nilus, Dodona, or Gethsemane.
Utter'd, not to the sense-bound hearing; but,
Thro' avenues of the spirit, to that ear
Which, like the hermit's door, welcomes, unbarr'd,
Herald or foot-worn pilgrim or scarr'd slave.
What else but the weird star-link'd talisman
Of charity and beauty, heaven-born song,
Threading this clogg'd and travail-crusted sojourn
From youth to age, as veins of purest gold
Thread the black earth, enlocks the charmëd ring
Of many-hued experience?—till the man,
In all simplicity and meekness, stands
Where stood the child: over still waters hearing
The zephyr-wafted curfew-tones of peace;
Seeing, direct, near, and immediate,
That truth which labour'd learning only hides.
There, now once more, the slumbrous images
Of past and future, in one mirror merged,
On fancy's argent stream roll by,
Delighting, not deluding.

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Lone, without comrade to cumber,
In the wild forest to lie,
Where tall pines, tempting to slumber,
Stem the blue tide of the sky.

Fragrances rare, terebinthine,
Float o'er the cone-sprinkled sward,
Far thro' the vague labyrinthine
Mazes of memory pour'd.

Only the loon's ghostly laughter
Breaks from the forest-bound mere:
Chimes of some mystic hereafter,
Borne on the spell-haunted ear.

Wraiths of yon fathomless azure,
Cloud-rack to cloud-castle rear'd,
Bid these fond fancies soar, as your
Shapes evanescent and weird.

There, where the pine-tops are sailing,
Black-fringed, ethereal; hung
'Mid fleecy filaments, veiling
Elfin-forms, phantasy-sprung,—

There, what bright visage, benignly
Sad, on my rapt vision beams?
Soul to soul, upborne divinely
Into the cloud-world of dreams!

What tho' with day-dream be blended
Bliss quench'd in night long ago,
If, till the reverie 's ended,
Blithely the dream-measures flow?

Out in the wild witching forest
Lone and uncumber'd to lie,
Stretch'd where the pines that are tallest
Stem the blue tide of the sky.

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TAKE, then, dear friend, your crown—word-woven: not
Like Ariadna's, in the firmament
Of spacious heaven with starry gems enwrought;
Once to her brow from fervid Orient
Divinely press'd: but in plain token sent
Of kind remembrance, from the fruited glades
Hemming a new Hesperian continent,
Rock-ridged; whose morn the snow-clad shoulder shades,
Whose eve o'er azure seas in golden pallor fades.

Here from hill caverns sweeping sands of gold
Wide flashing streams their westward courses wind,
Profuser than to Lydian kings of old
The famed Pactolus bore: with margent lined
By fields of bearded grain, whose reapers bind
World-sheaves of plenty; or flowing, now between
Fruit lands of shell or berry or citrus kind,
Or the gray olive; now 'mid vine-slopes seen,
Hiding pink clusters bathed in leafy rills of green.

Full-long the unfailing South her genial rains
Pours over dale and upland, to renew,
For pastured flocks no brumal fold restrains,
Fresh sustenance the verdant winter through;
And, for delighted eyes, the varied hue
Of verdure-mingled bloom—white solomon-seal,
Orange of poppy, and faint myrtle-blue:
Which fanning, thro' light and shade, with sprite-like zeal,
Their soft invisible way the searching sea-winds steal.

Sprite-like below: but, on each ridgy height,
The foam-born children of the giant West,
Rushing resistless in untrammell'd might
Of whistling glee! Down to her shelter'd nest
Flees the high-soaring hawk. Their toilsome quest
Eager-eyed hunter and rude muleteer
Bend breathless down: behind the airy crest
The steep still trail pursuing, oak-edged—near
Rattle of basking snake and plunge of startled deer.

STEMMA

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Mutters the black ravine with echoes hoarse
And muffled, where dense-fallen bowlders meet
The hurrying stream, that, from its snowy source,
Descends persistent. Here, with shuffling feet,
From ledge to ledge, moves Bruin, his grim retreat
Wary to cover. Here, the mountain-quail
Chants thro' the gloom. But one lone sunbeam sweet
Glints on the darting salmon's rainbow scale,
Where strives the crystal tide toward welkin and toward vale.

Strives nobly! What scenes for faltering pen to trace,
In that Titanic valley, whose sheer sides
Drop from mid-heaven to the shadowy base
Of Earth, low-rifted! There the Ice-king bides
His thousand years of slumbering strength, and hides
Under blue sheen the sure footfalls, that merge
In Time's unswerving pathway; whilst his guides,
Colossal peaks, in frowning silence, urge
The blind obedient waters, over the dizzy verge,

To their mad leap!—Yet is there might to save
That vapoury ruin, with all-gathering hand,
In fresh redoubled potency to lave
The temples of a wonder-teeming land.
Set on its brow, in serrate order grand,
Linking the present to a buried past
Of growths primeval, green and ageless, stand
Redwood and huge sequoia. They, the last
Of their majestic kind: and, with them, failing fast,

Too many a source of balm. No longer toll
For holy men (who sought no golden fleece,
But to sow wide their mission of the soul)
Anthem and angelus—where, in calm release
From fever'd life, they till'd its rich surcease.
Perchance, like theirs, might our free fancy stray
O'er the far-arching ocean, named of Peace,
Past yon white sea-bird rock'd in briny spray,
On the swift wing of thought, to Nippon and Cathay.

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FANCY free!—So deem the mind,
That no chains of memory bind
To some foreland fair
Of the dim receding shore;
That no anchor flings before,
Caught with gossamer
To some hope, deep-glimmering thro'
Each wave-wrinkled roadstead new.
Who no melody
Of enchanted music hears,
Echoed down the steadying years;
Nor, of quick-stirr'd heart,
Fresh enravishment can feel,
Let him rove, with veering keel:
Let him swing apart;
Drifting on a starless sea,
Calm-beholden, fancy free.

EPILOGUE

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And who?—at the cost
Of a cold and blunted sense;
In a vague indifference
To that sadness lost,
Which, by unrelenting laws,
Every thing of beauty draws
In its silken train,—
Who, forsooth, would ask reprieve?—
Or the mesh of fate unweave?—
Not to stand again
Near the torrent-laved lake-side,
Watch the foam-fleck'd water glide,
Hear the low refrain
Murmur'd by the rumbling fall.
Feign not I, now, to recall,
Thro' a childish rhyme,
What, when little children, we
(Little knowing) thought to see
In very deed: a clime,
Where nor face nor flower should fade,
Nor fount that fed the everglade
(Save that of tears) run dry;
Nor loved voices fail, between
Pale dawn and the opaline
Of the sunset sky.—
So, lest sombre strains too long
Haunt the evening of my song
With remember'd spell,
Sinking softly to its end:
Therefore, yet again, sweet friend,
Once again, farewell.

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JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL AS A CRITIC.[1]

ALEXIS F. LANGE.

Walter Scott is reported to have said: "If poets are the pillars of literature, critics must be regarded as the caterpillars." He had in mind the class of reviewers that feed and thrive on budding authors, and thus do their best towards stripping the tree of literature of new shoots and foliage and fruit. To this class belong not only all those who look upon an author as guilty until proved innocent, but also those who presume to sit in judgment and to deliver verdicts in accordance with something they consider literary law. The attitude is that of the teacher whose boys and girls are all good or bad, promising or hopeless, according to whether they conform or do not conform to her system of pedagogy. A noted mathematician illustrated this attitude when he condemned all poetry on the ground that he had never read a poem that proved anything, no, not a single one after which he could put a Q. E. D. An English governess declared the Sistine Madonna to be a poor picture, because Rafael, she said, "should have known better than to paint two urchins with their elbows on the table,—in the presence of Mary." Extreme examples these; but they serve to make clear the essential nature of what is known as judicial criticism,—the passing of judgment on the basis of rules and laws supposed to be absolute.

[1] An address delivered at the Teachers' Institute of Napa County, October, 1904.

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The very opposite attitude is assumed by the students or interpreters of literature. Their aim is the same as that of the botanist in studying a plant,—to understand. In order to do so they seek to put themselves into the author's place, to think his thoughts just as he had them, to see the same visions, to experience the same feelings, to discover not only what he accomplished but what he meant to accomplish as well, to trace all the influences that helped or hindered,—in short, to re-create the author's work within themselves through love and sympathy, and to explain to themselves and others what qualities it has and how these are to be accounted for. Instead of asking, What rank shall be assigned to this book? they ask, How has it come into being such as it is? Instead of discussing the question, Is it a work of perfect art? they ask, What is its tendency, its significance?

Now, if such an interpreter goes a step beyond revealing and characterizing an author and his works; if he gives also estimates of comparative or relative value, estimates based on an inductive study of literature and of its connection with human life, we get another kind of criticism,—the interpretative. It is like that of the teacher who understands her pupils and measures the achievement of each by the capacity of each, by the standard of the class as a whole, and by the inherent, not arbitrary, laws of good workmanship and conduct.

It is to this class of critics that we must assign Lowell, and among them he stands easily first as far as American men of letters are concerned. It is questionable whether even Matthew Arnold possessed as fine qualifications for interpretative criticism as Lowell exhibits in his critical essays. Intimately versed in more than six national literatures, and endowed with a memory at once tenacious and ready to yield up its treasures on demand, Lowell commanded a more extended horizon than Arnold. His outlook on life, too, was wider, and enabled him to see a great

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writer's work in more relations and in truer perspective. Nor did he have any of that Brahminic mental exclusiveness which narrowed Arnold's vision and contracted his sympathies. Lowell's range of sympathies coincided with his breadth of outlook, and made it possible for him to appreciate men as far apart in temper as Dryden and Dante. If he had not Arnold's nice poise of judgment, he had more common sense in more ways, as well as the added advantage of greater experience as a productive artist. If he does not as often condense his opinions into summary critical verdicts, he does something better. He lends us his eyes, eyes keener than ours, his imagination, more vivid than ours, his sense of values, better trained than ours, his sense of humor, to make us realize that authors are of our own flesh and blood,—and the authors rise before us in the fullness of life, with their characteristic marks of strength or weakness, so that we can judge for ourselves.

But back of every critic's interpretations and judgments lies his philosophy of art, and this can rarely be separated entirely from his personality. No one of us can ever discuss another human being in a wholly impersonal way; no portrait we draw is merely a reflection of the original, a photograph. It is as we see it; it has passed through the prism of our philosophy of life. And this bears the marks of our experience. It may look to us universal on the outside, but fiber and pith are individual. If Goethe had had Carlyle's stomach, Faust would have been different; if Carlyle's struggle for existence had been less fierce, his opinions, while perhaps not less sturdy, would have been less storm-twisted. The human pig gets four feet into the trough before it formulates the law of supply and demand as a rule of conduct and adds the corollary: do others before they do you. Where the only god known is a golden calf, a theology, a philosophy arises which makes the dance around the calf a sacred rite and one who can't or won't dance an infidel and outcast. Whence comes the gospel of the strenuous life?

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Chiefly from a strenuous temperament. Whence its claim to be the only gospel? From the narrowness inseparable from a strong individuality. Its extreme adherents are apt to reason thus: I can't help acting; the ideal course for everybody is, therefore, action. I love to be heard and seen; be ye, therefore, visible and audible. My heroism is aggressive, militant; hence there are no silent forces. I believe in doing; away, therefore, with growing. Do as I do; better still, do as I tell you.

In short, physique, temperament, external conditions, the social atmosphere one breathes—these are factors that always account, at least in part, for a man's working creed, which is frequently simply his natural practice set up as a decalogue.

What, then, was Lowell's working creed as a student and critic of literature? What, to begin with, did he understand by literary art? There always have been and there always will be people to whom a gentleman is a man that never slips on the floor of etiquette; there always have been and there always will be writers and critics to whom the art of literature consists in weaving words into pleasing shapes. What they look for is perfection of technique. There are others, and always will be, to whom the body is so much more than raiment that the form of a poem or of a prose work may be of any cut or finish as long as it is full

> Of pious plums,
> So extra-super-moral,—
> For sucking Virtue's tender gums
> Most tooth-enticing coral.[1]

Lowell belongs to neither of these classes. Literature meant to him, primarily, nothing more nor less than an expression of human experience, just as our government or as the character of each one of us is such an expression. The books on his shelves, Scudder tells us, always stood for the writers. About him were not merely The Canterbury

[1] Lowell, Origin of Didactic Poetry.

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Tales, Hamlet, Faust, The Divine Comedy, but Chaucer himself, and Shakespeare, and Goethe, and Dante, and all the other choice spirits he had gathered together for friendly intercourse. This vital conception of literature explains why we are told less in his essays about the heroic pentameter than about Pope, why we hear much concerning the man Lessing and little concerning his style, why our attention is kept focussed on Chaucer's personality rather than on the means employed to produce the charm of his verse and the delights of his story-telling. Before a book becomes a book in the literary sense, its contents must have been lived by its author, must have been a part of his inner being,—this conviction, exemplified in his own practice from first to last, constitutes the first article of Lowell's literary creed.

It would be absurd, however, to infer that Lowell underrated the importance of form. It is true that he was often too impatient to revise his own work, too much inclined to extemporize and too little inclined to grow lean, if need be, over the search for the one adequate, the inevitable word. The fault was natural to one whose powers were so ready and quick in action, and whose control over his intellectual resources was so complete.[1] But no one saw more clearly that it is of the very essence of all art so to fashion its conceptions that living idea and its embodiment become one, as the human soul and its body, in accordance with the laws of expression.

Accordingly Dryden stood high in his estimation because "he had, beyond most, the gift of the right word." To Swinburne he admits that "to make beautiful conceptions immortal by exquisiteness of phrase, is to be a poet." "The gold of the poet," he insists in the essay on Carlyle, "must be refined, molded, stamped with the image and superscription of his time, but with a beauty of design and finish that are of no time. The work must surpass the material." A

[1] Scudder's Life of Lowell.

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classic was to him a book, which, as he says in his study of Spenser, "maintains itself by virtue of that happy coalescence of matter and style, that innate and exquisite sympathy between the thought that gives life and the form that consents to every mood of grace and dignity."

The living thought creating its embodiment—this is Lowell's conception of artistic production. But if content and form go together, so do content and personality. Lowell distinguishes sharply between genius and character—which to him meant not only what a man is in his conduct but also what he is in his heart of hearts and what he wants to be—but "All the beautiful sentiments in the world," he declares, in giving his opinion of Rousseau, "weigh less than a single lovely action. Fine words butter no parsnips. Words, money, all things else, are comparatively easy to give away; but when a man makes a gift of his daily life and practice, it is plain that the truth, whatever it may be, has taken possession of him." Of Bryant he says:—

> We, listening, learned what makes the might of words,—
> Manhood to back them, constant as a star;

And with special reference to Dante: "The man behind the verse is far greater than the verse itself, and the impulse he gives to what is deepest and most sacred in us, though we cannot always explain it, is none the less real and lasting." It is not immaterial, then, what an author is, provided he has genius. Moral imbecility never produces great art. He who is at outs with his own better nature and with the divine moral order may satisfy "some fleeting fancy of the day," but not the "constant longing and hunger of human nature."[1] It will not be given him, as Lowell expresses it, "to feel and to utter that immanent life of things without which the utmost perfection of form is at best only wax or marble."[2]

This last statement contains the reason why what is

[1] Essay on Carlyle.
[2] Swinburne's Tragedies.

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said, how it is said, and who says it, belong together, why matter, manner, and manhood must enter into a union, one and inseparable, in the creation of literature as art. According to Lowell, the purpose of literature, of all art, is not merely to amuse or even to give refined pleasure. A nightingale sings neither to make a Mozart happy nor to win a pleased hee-haw from a thistle-munching donkey. A flower may please us by virtue of its fragrance, but surely the purpose of the flower does not lie in our noses. That a woman's beauty may lie wholly in her lover's eyes, all will grant,—except, of course, the lover; but shall we look for the reason for her existence and perfections in his ecstacy? No, pleasure is a result, a necessary by-product, if you will, of literature, of art in general, but not its purpose; just as happiness is a result and perhaps a necessary by-product of being and living in a certain way, but not the purpose of life.

But even if pleasure were the purpose of literary art, the higher, nobler, the lasting forms of pleasure cannot be produced by leaving out or perverting truth, whether intellectual or moral. In the long run mankind wearies of nonsense rhymes, however melodious; in the long run mankind turns from the will-o'-the-wisps, however iridescent, that hover over its moral quagmires. We know, of course, that the Italian Renaissance produced men capable of looking with equal zest upon a new Madonna by Rafael and the corpse of a rival they had poisoned. We know people who on Sundays stretch out their hands toward God and on week days towards their neighbors' pockets—and apparently with sincere devotion in either case. But it is an utterly antiquated psychology that would for normal mankind separate aesthetic enjoyment from reason and ideals of conduct. As a matter of history, the peoples of Germanic origin have steadily insisted on these elements as a condition for enjoyment. Lowell is correct when he says: "The Teutonic nature has always shown a sturdy prefer-

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ence of the solid bone with a marrow of nutritious moral to any shadow of the same on the flowing mirror of sense."[1]

Is Lowell's theory, then, that the purpose of literature is to teach? If we were compelled to deduce his theory solely from his practice, we might be persuaded to answer yes, without qualifications. Lines upon lines may be culled from his poems in which he reveals himself merely as a thinker, lines that appeal directly to our sense of truth, and to our aesthetic sense only as a neat statement of a mathematical truth makes such an appeal. Whole poems, such as The Oracle of the Goldfishes, presuppose that the reader, too, is

> With metaphysic midges sore,

and knows what the search for the tree of knowledge means. In many others of his poems Lowell is didactic in the sense that he expressly formulates the moral, or wakes up slumbering consciences with stinging rebukes, or goads the public up the steeps of duty, or lays the lash of satire on Hypocrisy, Wrong, and Oppression. But it would be rash to leap to the conclusion that in doing so he was following his own insight into the nature and laws of poetry. He was simply unaware at times that instead of smiting the strings of the lyre he was really pounding the pulpit, while at other times, with the St. George mood upon him, he struck at the dragon of Evil deliberately and knowingly with the sword readiest to his hand. And it is true that even as critic he stood ready to accept and approve of a certain admixture of direct teaching. "If," says he, in the paper on Wordsworth, "it be the most delightful function of the poet to set our lives to music, yet he will perhaps be even more sure of our maturer gratitude if he do his part also as a moralist and philosopher to purify and enlighten; if he define and encourage our vacillating perceptions of duty,—if he make "of the jumbled bits of our dissected map of experience a coherent chart."

[1] Essay on Spenser.

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We shall come nearer to a full view of Lowell's thought, however, if we listen first of all to his self-critique in A Fable for Critics:—

> There is Lowell, who is striving Parnassus to climb
> With a whole bale of *isms* tied together with rhyme;
> He might get on alone, spite of brambles and boulders,
> But he can't with that bundle he has on his shoulders;
> The top of the hill he will ne'er come nigh reaching
> Till he learns the distinction 'twixt singing and preaching.

But what is the great poet, the poet who reaches the summit of Parnassus, to sing of? The answer is:—

> Pour forth thy hope, thy fear, thy love, thy wonder,
> And tell the age what all its signs have meant.[1]

Why? Because:—

> All nations have their message from on high,
> Each the Messiah of some central thought,
> For the fulfillment and delight of Man.[2]

And poets are the prophets and bearers of this message. "Driven by their finer nature," Lowell remarks in a lecture on Thomas Middleton, "to search into and contemplate the universal laws of soul, they find some fragments of the broken tablets of God's law, and interpret it half conscious of its mighty import. The dreams of poets are morning-dreams, coming to them in the early dawn and day-breaking of great truths, and are surely fulfilled at last." What he conceived to be the proper theme or motif for the great poet of his own age and nation, he tells us in the Ode of 1841:—

> Who feels that God and Heaven's great deeps are nearer
> Him to whose heart his fellow-man is nigh;
> Who doth not hold his soul's own freedom dearer
> Than that of all his brethren, low or high;
> Who to the Right can feel himself the truer
> For being gently patient with the wrong,
> Who sees a brother in the evil-doer,
> And finds in Love the heart's-blood of his song;—

[1] Ode (1841).
[2] L'Envoi to Sonnets.

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This, this is he for whom the world is waiting
To sing the beatings of its mighty heart;
* * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
To him the smiling soul of man shall listen,
Laying awhile its crown of thorns aside,
And once again in every eye shall glisten
The glory of a nature satisfied.
His verse shall have a great commanding motion,
Heaving and swelling with a melody
Learnt of the sky, the river, and the ocean,
And all the pure, majestic things that be.

But if the poet's function is to

Interpret well the wondrous voices
Which to the calm and silent spirit come,

how is he to body forth the message he has heard? Not by demonstration—this is the method of the scientist or philosopher; not by urging men in so many words to do or to desist from doing certain things—this is the method of the moralist, of the law from Sinai. The conceptions of the poet are not formulae or rules; they come to him in the images Nature and human life bear to our senses; and the "living conception," to quote Lowell again, "shapes itself a body in marble, color, or modulated sound, and henceforth the two are inseparable." In this sense Lowell places himself squarely on the side of those who insist on "Art for Art's sake." Minerva, in The Origin of Didactic Poetry, voices his own conviction:—

"Discriminate," she said, "betimes;
The Muse is unforgiving;
Put all your beauty in your rhymes,
Your morals in your living."

The purpose of literature is neither to give pleasure nor instruction. Its purpose lies within itself, and consists in embodying interpretations of human experience through the methods of art. In doing so, however, it cannot fail to give refined pleasure—if the ears that listen are not too long; not only that, but it teaches as well,—"teaches," to use Lowell's phrase, "like life, by indirection, by those

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nods and winks that are thrown away on us blind horses in such profusion."[1] At its best it teaches as a human being does whose mere presence restrains, refines, strengthens, draws upward; whose personality is a revelation and prophecy of man's high estate. If the poet or novelist really sees life truly and sees it whole, if his soul is "led by the eternal law," he may represent life, as Shakespeare does; the greatness of it, the vileness of it, and all the shades between; he will still be one of the powers that make for righteousness;—and, provided always he possess the gift of artistic utterance, he will be a great poet or a great novelist.

Literature is thus seen to be something organic. Beautiful patches do not by themselves give perennial value to a lyric or epic poem, to a novel or a drama. "Real fame," Lowell insists, "depends rather on the sum of an author's powers than on any brilliancy of special parts."[2] "The really great writer is great in the mass, and is to be tested less by his cleverness in the elaboration of parts than by that reach of mind which is incapable of random effort, which selects, arranges, combines, rejects, denies itself the cheap triumph of immediate effects, because it is absorbed by the controlling charm of proportion and unity. The creative intellect is distinguished by marks of design."[3] "It is the union of qualities, and not their addition, that assures the value of each separately."[4]

It follows likewise, in Lowell's vital view, that an author gets a large portion of his strength through his people. He loses it when he stands aloof from their lives and interests. To quote from Lowell's essay on Spenser: "All great poetry must smack of the soil, for it must be rooted in it, must suck life and substance from it." And in commenting on Swinburne's attempt to write Greek tragedies in English, Lowell says: "It is the grace of the Greeks, their

[1] Essay on Shakespeare.
[2] Essay on Carlyle.
[3] Essay on Chaucer.
[4] Essay on Dryden.

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sense of proportion, their distaste for the exaggerated, their exquisite propriety of phrase, which steadies the imagination without cramping it,—it is these that we should endeavor to assimilate without the loss of our own individuality." But "no effort to raise a defunct past has ever led to anything but just enough galvanic twitching of the limbs to remind us unpleasantly of life." On the other hand, what Lowell says in another connection is equally true: "If a man cannot stand on his two feet, were it not better for him to be honest about it at once, and go down on all fours?"[1] Unless the writer have "the aspiring instinct of the pine that climbs forever toward diviner air," he will "suck life and substance" from his native soil only "in the groveling fashion of the potato."[2] The more of the unprovincial and uncontemporaneous elements there is in his nature, the greater he will be, the more will he speak "out of the eternal to the present." "Real manhood and honest achievement"—to quote from the essay, A Great Public Character,—"are nowhere provincial, but enter the select society of all time on an even footing." Accordingly Lincoln typefied to Lowell the great writer's relation to his age and public. "Mr. Lincoln"—he points out in the paper just referred to—"was an original man, and in so far a great man; yet it was the Americanism of his every thought, word, and action, which not only made his influence equally at home in East and West, but drew the eyes of the outside world, and was the pedestal that lifted him where he could be seen by them."

It follows from this conviction that originality is not synonymous with anything lying between eccentricity and lunacy. Lowell enjoyed immensely being taught to see in new ways, but he would beyond a doubt have advised our modern impressionists who habitually see purple cows to consult an oculist as soon as possible. "A man cannot escape in thought, any more than he can in language, from

[1] On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners.
[2] Essay on Spenser.

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the past and the present." "Writers who have no past are pretty sure of having no future." "Originality consists in power of digesting and assimilating thoughts so that they may become part of our life and substance."[1] "In literature a thing becomes his at last who says it best and thus makes it his own."[2] The true relation of the writer to the past and present of life and nature is like that of each sunset to its predecessors:—"The sunset is original every evening, though for thousands of years it has built out of the same light and vapor its visionary cities with dome and pinnacles, and its delectable mountains."[3]

To him who hath eyes to see and ears to hear life and Nature are ever new. For Lowell the emphasis rested on life, human life. Intimate as he was with Nature and all her ways, fond as he was of her every mood, grateful as he was for all those influences

That purify and heal and are not seen;

yet she had significance for him only through her relation to man and through the relation of both to the one immanent divine spirit of the universe. "The divine life of Nature," he reminds us, in the essay on Thoreau, "is more wonderful, more various, more sublime in man than in any of her works, and the wisdom that is gained by commerce with men, as Montaigne and Shakespeare gained it, or with one's own soul among men, as Dante, is the most delightful, as it is the most precious of all. In outward nature it is still man that interests us."

If I could tax your interest still longer, I should try to show that Lowell's critical essays no less than his poems are literature as tested by his own standards, and further that these standards are in substantial agreement with the standards of all those who have really seen literature truly and seen it whole. But even so it has seemed worth your while, I hope, to spend this half-hour with Lowell among his books.

[1] Essay on Thoreau.
[2] Essay on Dryden.
[3] Essay on Keats.

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CLASS VISION.[1]

RT. REV. WILLIAM FORD NICHOLS.

Other foundation can no man lay than that is laid, which is Jesus Christ.—1 *Cor.* 3:11.

Several hundred thousand people around the bay of San Francisco have recently been made a class by themselves. They have passed through an ordeal which has touched the sympathy of the civilized world. The year will be memorable for their experience. The effect of the experience upon all who had it has passed into each personal history as an event of a lifetime. In a word, there is a sense in which all of us hereabouts may call ourselves the Class of 1906. Not perhaps precisely as such a phrase is used in the academic tongue. For example, those whom it is my privilege to address to-day have, I believe, been some four years, forty-eight months, in their training, and about forty-eight seconds sufficed to graduate those in residence in the earthquake zone as proficient in its course. And the very flames which devoured your diplomas gave an added credential of having passed, to those who were scattered by their fierceness. But we may with propriety of speech, I venture to think, call ourselves your classmates. You, with this whole community, as we with you, are this year's men—a year big with the events of moment as, I believe, it is with the destinies of California.

[1] Baccalaureate sermon, delivered in the Greek Theatre, Sunday, May 13, 1906.

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There were classes of '49 at many an American seat of learning; but here every citizen was a man or woman of '49. Recent events have made the possibilities of pioneering into a new and greater future for California very opportunities to make historical the men and women of nineteen six.

The city and commonwealth builder has his record to make, and no one doubts that, barring more earthquakes, he will make it. The San Francisco sky-line is very much the same, so far as its tall buildings are concerned, and that is but typical of the soaring of the civic spirit that has survived crash and cinder. Millions will pour in, steel stories will run up; shop and office, street and wharf will hum with industry and commerce, homes and hotels and halls will fill with family and social round, and the shattered walls and ashes will be spirited away simply for more "made ground," and again the fair city will cover its seven times seven hills. To live to see that will be in itself a proud and presumably a near privilege.

For all that, we are just now in the planning stage. Our best mind is occupied in discussing and discovering the most direct and truest pathways to our vision. How shall we build wisely and well? How shall we make the most of our advantages of site? How shall we in boulevards and architecture best realize the city beautiful? This involves no little study of the proper materials for strong structures and of the questions of resistance to earthquake and fire. "Now lay our foundations aright for all time" is the watchword of the hour. Avoid mistakes; learn from the past; take advantage of the wide spaces cleared for new treatment.

It seems an opportune moment to carry that thought still deeper. A city really determines its future not so much by the houses as by what they house, by its avenues, as by its revenues of mankind, by its contour as by its character. It is not San Francisco, but the San Franciscan; not

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California, but the Californian, that is to count. And we are not thinking at all adequately of our future building if we do not plan for the sky-line of the people's vision as well as for the towering roofs. Otherwise the stir of recuperation will be only like that of the ant-hill, shot through with tiny life to restore the breach of one destructive footstep, only to have the incautious footfall of the next passer-by demolish it again. The real upbuilding with which our devastated region is most vitally concerned to-day is the rearing of character. And the promise of it all is that the very titanic forces which tumbled down and calcined hardest and heaviest stone, unloosed springs and channels of human sympathy and brotherliness and bravery and science of relief which had been hidden under the more material aspects of our much satirized civilization. With such a hidden wealth of human kindness, our whole country, our city, our California, is in no danger of having these sweet springs of human nature dry up. No vast scheme to finance our city *redivivus* has in it anything like the possibilities of ready and dazzling resource for the Greater San Francisco that are latent in the right recognition and rise of this newly appraised asset of the human heart.

The question is, how are we to make the most of it? That question is by no means a local one. The whole nation has surprised itself with the assertion of its heart. The American brain we knew about in the progress of the world; the American nerve needed no X-ray; the American muscle was not a little wielding the Union as well as the "Unions"; American genius all through was making history. But strife of classes and interests and money-greed and soft living and trickery of trade and graft and venality in public life, and social and individual unreality and banality and looseness, and Vanity Fair in full blast generally, were more than hinting, both in satire and in sigh, at something the matter with the American heart. The true beat of it now is as memorable as the pulsating walls of

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the 18th of April. The American heart is still sound; you may be sure of that.

But just now we have to think as Californians as well as Americans, and to that question of making the most of the new chapter of our history I believe we may turn with buoyant zest. First, there must be vision, and that there already is. Our young men see visions and our old men dream dreams. Subtract all sheer optimism and this is still true. It is true of the sober-minded and conservative men. It is in the air, and we cannot help breathing it. This is not to say that the man without a dollar left in the world is not, especially in the coming weeks, to realize perhaps much more than ever how much that dollar means. It is not to forget the heartaches and pinches of poverty where they have been strangers before, nor to fail to take seriously the prodigious problems that belong to our forecast, nor to be oblivious of all the pathos of sorrow and dashed hopes and disappointments that are more desolate in their acreage over lives and hearts—God comfort them!—than our ruins could ever be. No, the cheer and consideration for all this should be one of the first and foremost inspirations of our vision as we try to make every one of our lives a whole relief station in itself. Be it ours, in our high vision of privilege, to divine opportunities to feed hungering spirits invisible to each other in their loneliness and shrinking, but waiting as a weary bread-line for our brotherhood.

But in this vision of the kind of manhood that shall be the glory of our upbuilding, our instinct must be for the very best. We cannot afford to throw away zeal and effort on less than the best. *"Aut Caesar, aut nullus,"*—the best possible or none, is the right spirit for the new era of character, as it is for quake and fireproof material and structure. Class "B" manhood will only be a compromise, and Class "A" strength of steel and workmanship is typical of the kind of building to be aimed at by our whole California class of 1906. Now it is a striking and assuring fact that

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we may have no manner of doubt or delay in reaching the right data and specifications for such character building on its most comprehensive and enterprising scale. We have in this no stage of experiment to wait upon in order to determine what is best. No one withholds the secret in his future skilled tests. No opportunity remains for anyone to make the signal discovery or patent it. A thousand things may remain for architectural or structural or industrial genius to work out from the recent lessons before the ideal type of building is found for the city blocks of the new metropolis. And then, no doubt, we shall learn as we go—always some new security, some new convenience, some new appointment for time or labor saving or luxury. We would appear really to be only in the beginning of what is getting the name of "devising civic improvements for modern conditions." Burnham or Louis Napoleon plans for a whole city, or even your Benard plans for a complete University, are very rare indeed, but character building in its ideals has no real scope for the brand new. In point of fact, no one has been able to tell us anything original or unknown or altogether novel about the essentials of character for nineteen centuries. Much, no doubt, each age may do for itself in interpreting those essentials into its own progressive terms. Indeed, every man must build upon them in his own way. But the essentials themselves, the grounding of character, had expression once for all, not in a formula, not in an institution, not in a book, though all of these things have their place, but in a life lived before men in the fiercest possible light, the life of the One who gave the name to our whole era as a Christian era, Jesus Christ. That is the simple, direct force of our text, when you are thinking of building up the best and truest type of manhood. Other foundation can no man lay than that is laid, which is Jesus Christ.

One of these essentials is truth. And Christ's whole person and life was truth. Call truth simple honesty for

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our present purpose. That is only one of the elements of truth, but it is a very conspicuous one in our vision of opportunities for the new manhood. The new San Francisco, they tell us, must have honest construction. Bogus building must come to an end. And of how many things could it be said that the earthquake and fire tried every man's work of what sort it was. Emergencies make strange turns of affairs and exhibit qualities that have not been suspected. The broad avenue that had been charted for ornament becomes the fire-break. The Army becomes a charitable agency. The bank holiday becomes an everyday. The Park, for beauty and recreation, becomes the refugee's camp. The highway becomes the kitchen. And all answer their purpose very well. On the other hand the fair external wall betrays its flimsiness, the structural cheat is exposed, and the rattle-trap fabrics collapse in a way that would defy even a diatribe of Ruskin to describe. It is all, however, downright pretense and dishonesty in the light of the Lamp of Truth. So with human character. No matter what veneer there may be about it, if it lacks honesty in its foundation, it will some day disastrously topple over. This old-fashioned maxim San Francisco must restore to its proper place if she is to build her new manhood aright. Will she? Perhaps it is too much to expect to have any change outright. Rather will it not go on; those that are honest will be honest still, and those that are dishonest will be dishonest still. But then the sturdy aim of every good citizen to promote a sense of honor and integrity as a civic mark will tell in the long run upon our real prosperity far more than beating about for population. One month ago any one who would have predicted the present condition of closed saloons and freedom from drunkenness and crime in San Francisco would have received a smile of pity for his pains. You cannot prohibit dishonesty, but you can stand for the blazing abroad of honor of a city escutcheon. "Punic faith" was the blot in the downfall

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of Carthage. Californian faith and credit have ever, thank God, been contrasted with anything like that, and in darkest days our best has yielded to none in our country. But now is our opportunity to make public and civic honor so characteristic of a city set on a hill that it cannot be hid. Why not lift up a standard of commercial, political and industrial as well as personal honor that will pass into a proverb "Good as the Golden State." Does this too seem like vaulting ambition? Not so much if we take into account some things which have happened lately. Look at some of our political conditions. We remember a municipal election, not so many months since, in which issues, no matter what now, were sharply presented and handled on both sides without gloves. It is reported now with seeming authority that all party issues are for the present to be sunk and the leaders are to join forces for the united revival of the city. Then the candidates for the mayorality on either side were pitted against each other on distinct questions of city reformation. It is no lessening of our admiration for the campaigning of the epigrammatic young graduate of this University, Mr. Partridge, who was not elected, to pay a well deserved tribute to-day to Mayor Schmitz, for the large-minded and patriotic way in which he has risen to the exacting duties of his office—and he should have ready and cordial support, as I believe he has,—in these days when, almost literally, reform means the actual reformation of a tumbled and smoldering city. If we would but know it, we are seeing with our eyes some things which fire the heart with true ambition for lofty purpose in our manhood.

But another part of any true foundation laid in Jesus Christ is brotherhood. He is our great Brother. He gave a new ideal to the ages. His fraternity was mankind. His fellowship is for eternity. His bond is for the beginning and the end. He is an alpha omega. He would draw all men unto him. Every one who would bear another's burdens has caught something of His law. Every one who

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would work for the common good is breathing some of His spirit. Every one who would lead his fellows to higher character and achievement is under His influence, because Christian civilization is simply the civilization that has Christ permeating it everywhere. You can no more eliminate Him from the heredity or environment of any given individual than you can date your birth outside of an Anno Domini. And it is a perfectly possible aim for any modern city as a whole to build more or to build less upon brotherhood as a fundamental trait. A city may have a characteristic sense of camaraderie, or it may rather sourly present a spectacle of never pulling together in anything. It would be unfair to class our truly big-hearted San Francisco among the latter, but now certainly is the time, if ever, for it to put itself fully into line with the former kind of city. The new citizenship must exploit brotherhood. Men who shared the same blanket in those park snatches of sleep in the nights radiant with the flames' glow, as now side by side they face the future, should share the same civic ambition for heart and mutual fairness of consideration, and reciprocal interest, though one happens to be in the shop and the other in the office, though one is white and the other perhaps brown or yellow or some other shade, and though one is up and the other down. Pure policy, indeed, dictates something like this for mutual relief and progress. It is part of the program of any alert board of trade to get everybody to work together for the common push of city prosperity. Organized interest is well understood to be oftentimes the best form of self-interest. But you will understand me to mean something far more vital than that to our well-being. The spirit of fraternity is after all the more important thing than the badge. The value of the password between brothers cannot be listed in jewelers' price lists like the pin, and the touch which one true man has with another true man at sight, whatever be their stations or rations, is the real hope of San Francisco to-day in

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its promise of better brotherhood to come. Great corporations have proved that they have souls. Business has refused to clap on "corner" prices. Labor holds in abeyance some of its stiffest union rules. The Government becomes paternal to the extent of feeding, clothing and camping hundreds of thousands, and all because we are thrown back upon simple humanity, which appears in terms of simple brotherhood of man. This phase undoubtedly is abnormal and cannot continue, but the genius of it may well remain, tending to eliminate cut-throat rivalries and smart practices and grinding greed and ignoble partisanship and artificial social alignments, and the thousand and one sorry selfishnesses that split up the unity and action of a great city, and that genius can further exhibit itself in making a new kind of Order of St. Francis to pervade the city of his name with a civic brotherhood compactly integrated to its center. Let us have for such a civic cult of the brotherhood of mankind an heroic statue of St. Francis to crown our new city hall.

And Canon Knox-Little, of England, in his discriminating life of St. Francis, points out a note in his career in which, I believe, all religious people of whatever name will chord, and that is that "his work was a wonderful step in God's providential order for fashioning and forwarding the civilization of the West; and this, too, by his peculiar treatment of the things of time, and his direct devotion to religion." In a word, St. Francis reinforced civilization with religion. In that all religious people can feel the common impulse now for our commonwealth. San Francisco, like St. Francis, whatever her vision, whatever her enthusiasm for humanity, must appreciate what religion can do for her moral and spiritual upbuilding. "Other foundation can no man lay." St. Francis took Christ's method of world-betterment. To adopt Knox-Little's phrase, religion is to "leaven, and absorb civilization at last, and bless it and restrain it, and sanctify it, and to charm it into some measure of goodness and diminish the evil in it, and take the

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sting out of its dangerous tendencies, and while continuing to be at war with the sin in it, to be careful not to war with true civilization itself." To have a municipal manhood typical of the best of the century is then to appropriate the very spirit of St. Francis if we intelligently give religion its proper place in achieving it. Religion is not the luxury of a few in a city. It is the necessity of the many, if the city is to thrive aright. The finer vision of character supremacy, the kindling ardor of the kin of citizenship of no mean city, will fail without it. *Cujus religio, ejus regio* is a turn we might give to an old saying. There is still preserved at Assisi the little hut in which St. Francis and his first companions found their earliest shelter. The great church in the interior of which it is preserved intact, suffered from an earthquake in 1832. Over the entrance to the little original building used as a loved and revered chapel, is a fine fresco representing a vision of St. Francis, of the greatness of the full devotion to the service of Christ. The earthquake must have brought closely to the hearts of those who were there the lesson of the contrast always suggested by the magnificent fane enfolding the rude shed. And the vision belonged as a pristine glory to the shed rather than to the splendid sanctuary. Just now all Christian bodies in San Francisco will know what it is to worship in sheds, and must be content in great part to do without the worthier temples we hope to see crowning our hills in even nobler type than we have ever seen before. But the religion of the shack may be just now transfigured by vision as our shaken and burnt churches have never been. And if they are, and if our religious people will rally around their places of worship and become a generation of faithful churchgoers and get to their knees and become more God-fearing and God-loving and prayerful and conscientious and catch more the spirit of their Master, they will soon contribute the very thing needed to elevate their civic character. We translate St. Francis into San Francisco; let

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us translate his genius of Christian civilization into civic action.

Vision, brotherhod, religion; these I propose as the watchword of the hour in laying the foundations for our works of restoring and ennobling San Francisco for its metropolitan sphere of influence. These are tried foundations that have never failed. They are foundations in Christ. They have never been surpassed by any helps to character. No man and no age can improve upon them. "Other foundations can no man lay than that is laid." The challenge to test this has come strikingly and sharply to all of us who have by our April experience been made a class of 1906. In heavy foundation work there is, no doubt, hazard and hoist. We must expect strain upon power and skill, and now and then a bruise. The supports must be shaped for their weight by careful formula. The upper lines of beauty must be anticipated. Material things must count only for expression of the high ideal, as in Michel Angelo's sonnet:

> "When—
> With chiseled touch
> The stone, unhewn and cold,
> Becomes a living mould,
> The more the marble wastes,
> The more the statue grows."

And to you who in advancement to your Degree are to stand on the University Register as the Class of 1906, I feel that I can couple no more timely message with the congratulations which it is my privilege to extend to you to-day than to refresh your minds about the foundations of character as each one of you goes out to your individual stations in life. Advisedly I say, refresh your minds, because these things, vision, brotherhood and religion have long since, I doubt not, had their hearing with you in your foundation-laying in the years so essentially formative preceding this. I can only submit to you the maxim of the text in profound

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interest in your young life and in this sun-dawn of your serious day in which you are to do your work while it is day. May bright dreams long ward off that concern which some of us must begin to have about the night that cometh when no man can work. The vision of the Christ, the brotherhood of the Christ, the religion of the Christ, dream of these things, too; vitalize them in your life and character, and Christ will be yours to know in blessed possession and yours to irradiate your pathway.

And as community-builders, wherever you are, and California-builders, if here is your lot, realize what a privilege it is to have a share in these times if you are willing to count for this vision, this brotherhood, this uplifting religion. No one would willingly miss the quickened heart-beat at the tocsin that is sounding for the stir to higher levels of American manhood and womanhood, the bracing atmosphere so fully charged with the better self and Christ. Before he was the saint, St. Francis was the young man, and as he was once sitting amid the ruins of an old church the turning point of his life came to him. He seemed to hear a voice, "Francis, seest thou not that my house is in ruins? Go and restore it for me."

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ON THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE ART-EPIC AND THE FOLK-EPIC.[1]

CORNELIUS B. BRADLEY.

When we call the Paradise Lost and other poems of its kind Art-epics, and so distinguish them from certain others which we call Folk-epics, we do not mean, I imagine, that the two are necessarily different in subject-matter or in essentials of treatment: for the so-called Art-epics have confessedly copied the others in these points. Nor do we mean that in genesis and development the two are different throughout. It is clear that both kinds alike strike their roots deep into the same subsoil of communal consciousness and of racial activity wherein are the beginnings of spiritual and artistic life for man. Both kinds take shape under the determining influence of prevalent ideals of beauty, of conduct, and of character, which are racial and not individual. The ultimate materials for both, whether in the form of story, myth, legend, cosmogony, or theology, are, as we know, the resultants of coöperative efforts on the part of untold generations of men. The earlier stage then is essentially alike in both; and so too is the final. For the final form in both is determined by the fusing, the coördination, and reduction of all this mass in the central glow of some individual imagination, and the recasting of it in the mold of a single, adequate, poetic form. Whatever differences then we discern between the Art-epic and the Folk-epic

[1] Paper read at a meeting of the Philological Club, April, 1905.

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must be either differences in the intermediate stage directly affecting the final form; or, possibly, some difference in the poet's temperament or circumstances; or even some difference in ourselves, which may modify our impression of the result. The factors efficient here would seem to be these: (1) The individual power and skill of the redactor actually brought into play. (2) The relative conditions of age, form, and consistency in which the various materials are furnished to his hand, in so far as these affect the inherent difficulty of the redactor's task, and the consequent demand for the exercise of conscious art. (3) The contemporary attitude of men regarding this material, as affecting the freedom which the poet may allow himself in dealing with it; and (4) our own knowledge or ignorance of the precise facts and conditions of the redaction, which unconsciously, but surely, affects our impression, and therefore our classification, of individual epics.

As for the first point, organizing and poetic power of a very high order is presumed in the case of any poem which the suffrage of the world has crowned as an epic. That fact is the demonstration of its presence. Differences of degree within this first order of poetic power, or differences of aspect and function, while affecting the rank of the epic, so far as I can see, do not at all affect its classification under one or other of the two kinds now under consideration. There remains, however, the pertinent question of how constantly and how pervasively is this organizing power evoked, how large is the demand made upon it, and how obvious are the proofs of its exercise. Since these are matters immediately concerned with the remaining heads of my discussion, I shall defer them until we encounter them in their places further on.

The second point—the actual form and condition of the raw material of epic poetry which comes to the redactor's hands—is one of considerable importance. If the redaction takes place not too long after the close of the natural

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growth of folk-lore and legend; if the material reflects the imaginative life of a single unitary people, and therefore of a single epoch, we should expect to find in it a degree of homogeneity both in matter and in manner, which would very greatly simplify the task of redaction. Artistic selection would be very largely anticipated by what we might call natural selection. Many of the forms and features of communal art, being already in harmony with each other and with the main theme, would inevitably be preserved in the finished work. Not that there would be less need of the consummate poet, or less opportunity for him, but his art would largely efface *him*. The pervading sense of a single dominant personality would to us be greatly lowered, with corresponding heightening of the features of impersonal, *i.e.*, racial, coöperation. A work so brought into final form we should certainly count a Folk-epic;—and such a work is the Iliad.

But let us suppose the contrary case:—that the mass of legendary material for the coming epic concerns a number of diverse peoples; that its various elements have been developed under widely differing conditions, and even in different epochs; that there are fundamental discrepancies of situation or of story to be harmonized or eliminated, action to be newly motived, and all its scenes brought as it were into one focus and reduced to one scale; that all its life, of whatever original cast, is all to be made to assume the guise and setting of an already fabulous heroic age whose only examples are the Iliad and the Odyssey. In such a case the dominance of the individual and of his art will be greatly enhanced;—we shall everywhere feel the presence of the poet. Quite apart perhaps from what we now know of its origin, we might for this reason alone account the Æneid an Art-epic.

Or let us put one other case. If in the thirteenth century, either in France or in England, the Arthurian legend had found its poet of genius, and if he had been uplifted

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on a swelling tide of national or racial enthusiasm, we should doubtless have had a genuine Folk-epic. But if Milton in the seventeenth century had carried through to completion his earlier and long-brooded purpose,—had given us the British instead of the Hebrew story,—we should certainly have had an Art-epic. Between these two dates—in Chaucer's time or again in Malory's, had either of these men been fitted for the task,—we should have had a result which might conceivably have been of either kind, according to the obtrusiveness of the personality and art,—the original prominence, that is, of the personal signature; but in part also according to the degree in which the lapse of time has caused that signature to fade from our view. But, on the other hand, had Shakespeare's genius been epical rather than dramatic, and had he—late as his period was—addressed himself to this story, I venture to believe the work would be rated as a Folk-epic. Shakespeare is the known and historic type of a great poetic organizer like our unknown and mythical Homer. His is the skill to work with unhewn stones—with masses of material most diverse in origin and form,—and with the least possible alteration of them, to build them into a noble edifice. His is the art which effaces art, as it certainly did even to his contemporaries. The very opposite is true when we come to the only great poet who ever actually wrought in these particular materials—to Tennyson and his Idylls of the King. Though these attain not to the continuity and completeness of the epic and are therefore only epical, there can be no doubt as to their classification with reference to the question we are now considering. They represent the acme of conscious and personal art,—the utmost remove from the features of the Folk-epic.

The third point,—as to the part which contemporary belief, conviction, and reverence for tradition may play in limiting the redactor's freedom in the exercise of his art,—seems to me to be of not nearly so much importance to our

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present discussion as some appear to think. That strong contemporary feeling toward the tradition—and especially the redactor's own feeling as reflecting that of his time—would powerfully affect the freedom of his art along certain lines is undoubtedly true. But that the presence of such affirmative feeling should have much to do with making the outcome an epic of the Folk-species, or that its absence, leaving the poet more fancy-free, should of itself tend to make his art more dominant, and so give us an Art-epic, seems to me an unwarranted conclusion, and one not borne out by the facts. Virgil, as Heinze has abundantly shown, feels bound religiously to respect the tradition. He may choose between different versions of the tradition that one which best suits his purpose. He may fill up gaps in the tradition with material of his own invention. He may graft foreign tradition upon the native or the Grecian stock. Above all, he may amplify, embellish, may supply motive, occasion, and setting; may infuse into it all his own genius, his own poetic aspiration. But in all essentials Virgil sticks close to his text. Nevertheless his work is the very type of the Art-epic.

On the other hand Homer seems to have worked in an atmosphere of much greater freedom. Myth and legend seem plastic in his hands, and that in spite of much greater apparent belief and reverence, both as regards the heroic and as regards the divine phases of the legend, than is conceivable in Virgil's time.

Milton, at a greater distance from the origins than was the case with either of these, is nevertheless confronted both within himself and in the world about him by a conviction much more rigid and definite than Homer's, and by a scruple which bound him to follow the letter much more closely than did Virgil. It is worth while moreover in this connection to note how closely Tennyson too has followed Malory, though surely neither the poet himself nor his age could have felt the slightest scruple—unless it were an

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artistic one—to prevent him from doing as he would with heroes whose very existence at all in the flesh is openly doubted or denied. Certain human types from the old myths, it is true, have become symbolic—are now psychological studies, and poets in succeeding ages are fond of shaping them anew in the image and fashion of their own times, and trying their reaction under changed conditions and social ideals. Such old types freely dealt with anew are of immense importance and interest as landmarks of the progress of human thought, and the gradual shift of its ideals. Such are the Ulysses of Dante and of Tennyson, the Prometheus of Shelley and of Lowell, the Faust of Marlowe and of Goethe, and the various impersonations of the Satan-type—including Prometheus—from the Satan of Job to Mephistopheles. These are dealt with more freely perhaps in proportion to their distance from their originals. But apart from such cases as these, the very reverse of the usual assumption would seem quite as close to the truth, if not closer; namely, the nearer the beginnings, the more plastic in general is the material of the tradition; and not until late is it likely to crystallize into definite dogma, or become a matter of creed which one touches at his peril.

The last point is one I have never seen discussed or even mentioned; yet it seems to me deserving of serious attention. The assignment of a great poem to the one class or the other is not in every case, surely, a matter of objective certainty or of absolute demonstration. It is rather the outcome of a total impression made upon *us*;—the impression of the presence or absence of a single conscious purpose powerful enough to coördinate and unify all details, and of a conscious personal technique and art which make themselves felt there in the work. All poems that we know of epic grade root themselves in some great tradition of which they are the final and consummate flower. All of them therefore have the popular, the communal element, the fragmentary and discrepant material as their basis,

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needing to be fused in the central heat of some great artistic imagination before the broken fragments can become a great poem. Conversely all poems which we account worthy to take rank as epics have had, we feel sure, from some hand this final personal shaping; since the constant tendency to ramify and diverge, which is the mark of the popular, the communal, phase of the process, could never reverse itself without passing out of that phase into the phase of personal art. Both the communal origin, then, and the personal art are present in every epic. The difference therefore becomes a question of degree and not of kind: How completely has the organizing imagination and purpose mastered these unorganized materials? How far have the resources of the poet's expressive art sufficed to give the resulting conception adequate and harmonious expression? Perfection in either kind it is idle to look for. No imagination can suffice to reconcile all discrepancies, to fill up all gaps in material so originating; nor can any art working on so vast a scale efface entirely all traces of the tools of previous workmen. Every work of art is really a palimpsest, but epic art more so than any other, and inevitably so.

Here as elsewhere hindsight is proverbially better than foresight;—we see what we are prepared to see. The distinguished scientist, you remember, who when asked to observe some specially interesting object made ready for him in the field of the miscroscope, instinctively paused to ask before he would look, "What am I to see?" was quite right. Had he not received that direction, he might have looked in vain;—he might have missed entirely the intended demonstration. So here in a great epic a conscious purpose is much more clearly discerned when we know what to look for, when we have learned from other sources somewhat of the artist's character and tendencies. His art is more apparent the more we know of his artistic training, his masters, his models, and the history of his development.

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If these elements in his case are well known, and known to be efficient and powerful, the presumption of course will be strong that they will be found in the epic he has worked upon, and that they will determine its artistic quality. But it is conceivable also that for one reason or another these powers, though generally pronounced enough, may have been feebly exercised in any particular case; or even though competent, the poet may be without a strong egoistic manner. In such cases we might find ourselves quite at a loss, and our demonstration would not be complete till we had unearthed the quarry in which he worked, had found the rough blocks which he was to build into his stately edifice:—that is, had discovered his sources in the form in which they came to his hands. Not until this has been done have we any absolute control upon subjective and impressionistic judgment. In Milton's case we have of course full information on all these points. Yet it seems to us, no doubt, that without any of this information we should be able to recognize anywhere that splendid egoism of character and the music of that "organ voice of England";—and so I agree we should in general. But I am not so sure of detail and of special passages. What would the art critic of three millenniums hence, with no Bible, no Homer, no Dante, no Tasso, no history, and no other poems of Milton to afford him a clew—what would he make of the allegory of Sin and Death, of that grotesque Limbo on "the backside of the world," of that other grotesque and irrationality of battle in Heaven with gunpowder and cannon, of coarse punning speech on the part of archangels who count themselves equals of the Most High, or of that scene in the grand audience chamber of Hell, when "Princes, Powers, Potentates, the flower of Heaven once lost" assembled to hear the report of their mighty leader's success, suddenly fall prone and grovelling in guise of serpents, and instead of the intended applause utter only "a dismal universal hiss"? Or what would he make of the

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passages where Milton's scruple about the very words of scripture has given us whole blocks of lines which are little more than centos, whose metrical form even does not conform to rules which Milton elsewhere observes? Under criticism like that we are only too familiar with would not these almost inevitably be marked as "intrusive materials," unassimilated and unassimilible;—instances in fact of the very sort of thing which characterize the Folk-epic? Yet most of these, as we know, are Milton's own invention pure and simple, and are not found in any of his models or sources. All this, be it observed, in the case of Milton, whose personality and art are as definite and unmistakable as any we know in literature. But suppose the artist of Paradise Lost had been quite another, yet as great or even greater than Milton; but an artist of a different method;—suppose it had been Shakespeare, working broadly and rapidly, incurious of minute and uniform finish, compelled by haste to collaborate with other men, to appropriate whole blocks of material either as it stood, or with slight touches of his own,—an artist of no one fixed mood and master-temper to betray him, but of immense range and compass—had it been so, what could the critic do but pronounce the work a Folk-epic? Is it not conceivable—nay, is it not even probable—that such is the case with Homer? Clearly then our knowledge—that is, our ignorance—of the facts may determine our judgment, and may determine it wrongly. It is at least a significant fact that of all the works we agree to call Folk-epics not one, so far as I can recall, has grown to completion within the range of our vision and recorded observation; and not one of our so-called Art-epics is the work of an artist we do not personally know.

These arguments, it may be said, are purely hypothetical; and such they are frankly admitted to be. But such too, it seems to me, are the arguments which oppose them. The fact is that the group of poems we are now considering is so small, so essentially diverse in character, and

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with few exceptions so absolutely unknown to us in the real facts and circumstances of their origin, that sound generalization is extremely difficult, to say the least; and dogmatism of any sort is entirely out of place. If we consider the standard epics of both sorts along with other forms of literature most nearly allied to them, we shall find that they form an almost perfect series with no impassable gaps. Beginning with mere collections of ballads and lays, like those of Percy and Child, they grade upward into cycles like the Arthurian Romances, and these again into definite redactions and integrations like the Morte d'Arthur or the Kalévala. Between these and the lower grade of epics—more or less doubtfully of that rank—such as Beowulf, the Nibelungenlied, and the Mahābhārata, it would be difficult to draw any sure line save that of our own knowledge or ignorance of the precise conditions of the final shaping. Passing these, we come to the Homeric poems, the surest types for us of the genuine Epic. And after all the tumult of battle which has raged about them, it is interesting to note, as Matthew Arnold points out, that the most abiding impression they make upon the appreciative reader is the impression of essential unity, pointing clearly to the work of some single poet of uncommon mastery and skill, though otherwise unknown to us. In this same group we should doubtless put the Rāmāyana and very likely some others of unknown authorship, if only we count them in general character and excellence worthy to stand in this privileged group—as, for instance, the Cid, or even some of those named in the preceding group. Of intrinsic character quite akin to these, but of known authorship, are the Æneid, the Divina Commedia, Shah Nāmah, and Paradise Lost; and with these, but for its dramatic form,—in this case hardly a vital matter,— should be associated Goethe's Faust. Beyond these still are certain elaborate poetical studies both ancient and modern, in various form and to different artistic ends, but on themes from the epic field:—Prometheus,

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Ulysses, Agamemnon, Ajax, Enceladus, Œnone, Iphigenia, with Tennyson's Arthurian Idylls and many others;—through which field our quest brings us back once more into the realm of general poetry.

To sum up very briefly, then, the conclusions of this paper may be stated somewhat as follows: (1) The ultimate materials used in each of the epic forms we have been considering are the same: myth, legend, and tradition. The complete and final form moreover is due to the skill of some individual poet and artist. The elements of difference then are either the essential character and the degree of elaboration of the popular materials used, or the boldness of the signature of the artist. (2) If we regard the actual condition of the materials used as not of any great importance in this present discussion, and therefore negligible here, there remains the signature of the artist to be considered—the impress of his personality. Not merely will this actually vary through all degrees with the character and force of the artist, but the signature itself in any given work is not forever a constant quantity. Bolder and blacker at first, it inevitably fades with time; and especially when read in the twilight of our ignorance, it is sure to seem to us fainter than it really is. It cannot therefore be a sure criterion by which to classify works of different men and of different times. In further support of this point is the surprising uniformity of rating in the one group all the works of known artists, and in the other all the works of artists unknown. (3) The distinction then between the Folk-epic and the Art-epic so-called is a vanishing one, convenient indeed for certain purposes of education and criticism, and in typical cases apparent enough for such purposes; but too subjective—too impressionistic—too little based on fact and knowledge to be final.

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GRADUATE STUDY IN THE COLLEGE OF CIVIL ENGINEERING.

CHARLES DERLETH, JR.

During the Fall term of 1904 the Faculty of the College of Civil Engineering of the University of California held a series of special meetings to consider and develop the then existing conditions and requirements for graduate study. The new conditions were completely formulated October 14, 1904, and approved by the Graduate Council, October 27, so that they replace the meager statements of requirements which are to be found printed in the University REGISTER for years preceding 1905. The REGISTER for 1904–1905, pages 297 to 300, gives the complete statement of the new requirements, while on pages 262 to 264 of the same publication are found the lists of graduate courses now offered by the Department of Civil Engineering.

A number of students have already availed themselves of the advantages of the new graduate curriculum and the courses which it offers. In May, 1905, two students received the degree of Master of Science in Civil Engineering, and to the present date, in a period covering three semesters, there have been at least ten graduate students taking advanced work in the College.

As the requirements represent a new departure in the possibilities and means for advanced study in Civil Engineering at our University, it is thought that a description

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of some one course recently developed for graduate students would be of general interest, and would enable those particularly interested in Civil Engineering to gain some idea of what is being done.

This year, 1905–1906, the writer has given a course of three lectures per week, throughout the year, entitled in the REGISTER, "C. E. 20, Concrete-Steel Structures." The course, however, is broader than its title implies, in that it is a thorough and advanced treatment of the mechanics and design of the more complex structures such as the arched rib, the suspension bridge, and the dome. The design problems, by general request, so far as feasible deal with structures of reinforced concrete. This necessitates, in a general treatment, a study of the elasticity and resistance of a composite material of heterogeneous elements under different conditions of stress. The course, therefore, is developed primarily along these lines. The students in their design applications apply the general theoretical treatments to the special combination, concrete and steel. They have designed during the Fall semester reinforced beams, slabs, and columns such as are now being advocated as the component parts of modern reinforced concrete buildings, and have completed the first term's work by designing alternative types of retaining walls.

The second term's work comprises, as applications to theoretical studies, the complete design of a reinforced arched highway bridge, and a study for a reinforced dome such as may be used for a library or cathedral.

During the first term, by lectures and discussions, and as directly appertaining to the designs mentioned, the following general theoretical problems were studied:

(1) The theory of flexure in its most general form, with a view to explaining the limitations of the common theory of flexure, and the behavior in flexure of a compound material like reinforced concrete versus a homogeneous one like rolled steel.

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(2) The theorem of the ellipse of stress applied to beams in flexure to study the variations of stress at all points in the span.

(3) Column bending, the elasticity and mechanical properties of reinforced columns, especially hooped types.

(4) Rankine's theory of earth pressure; its applications to retaining wall computations; its limitations.

(5) The later developments, since Rankine's time, in the study of earth pressures and thrusts.

(6) The supporting power of a granular mass.

(7) Retaining wall design, with special reference to reinforced concrete types.

In the second term's work, to parallel the design problems, the general theory of the elastic arch, the spandrel-braced arch and suspension cable were studied, and the theoretical part of the course closed with the general theory of the dome and of slabs.

Reinforced concrete structures of certain types and proportions, and under special conditions, may show striking advantages when compared to alternative structures built of other materials. The retaining wall gives an excellent example; so does the arched rib for highway bridges; and to emphasize the advantageous possibilities of certain types of reinforced walls and arches, special problems were suggested to the students. These problems form part of the regular series required by the course of study. The statements of the retaining wall problems explain their purpose and are as follows:

Problem 15.—Find completely an economic section of concrete gravity retaining wall, given the ruling dimensions as sketched. See figure 1. The retained material is well drained sandy earth, the head on wall, thirty feet, and the foundation bed *A-B*, six feet below the finished ground level at the outer toe *A*. The foundation rests on earth that must not sustain at any point a pressure exceeding two tons per square foot. Prescribe such longitudinal reinforcement as

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FIG. 1.

FIG. 2.

FIG. 3.

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is required to prevent setting and thermal cracks in the concrete face.

Problem 16.—Design a T-shaped sectioned reinforced wall to replace the gravity all-concrete wall of Problem 15, satisfying the ruling dimensions given in figure 2.

Problem 17.—Replace the wall of Problem 16 by a reinforced concrete wall with counterforts spaced ten feet center to center, figure 3.

Problem 18.—If concrete costs eight dollars per cubic yard and steel five cents per pound, both in place, assuming excavation and other expenses approximately the same, discuss the relative costs of ten linear feet of wall in the three designs. Report contract drawings of the three walls.

It is at once seen that the problems give the means for very interesting comparisons. Three students, working independently, concluded that ten linear feet of gravity concrete wall cost about $1,125, a similar length of T-shaped reinforced wall about $700, while ten feet of counterfort wall to satisfy the same general conditions cost about $500.

Assuming the other specifications of the problems essentially the same in the three cases, there is a great range in cost in favor of the reinforced counterfort wall. We thus note in one special problem, very emphatically, that possibility in reinforced concrete design which is bringing it so generally to the front in engineering construction, both in this country and in Europe. The embedded steel is protected by the concrete, and the composite mass, we have reason to believe, offers about the same resistance to the destructive agencies of time as stone or true masonry. The concrete acts mainly, in fact almost wholly, in compression, while the steel, within certain limits, is caused to resist the tensile and shearing forces. By this combined action of dissimilar elements, each giving resistance of the kind for which nature intended it, the resulting structure is enabled to withstand the external forces and loads, and yet be far lighter in amount of material than an alternative one built

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wholly of stone or concrete. Thus the discrepancy in first cost in favor of the reinforced design is explained.

Moreover we note that the counterfort wall is far cheaper than the T-shaped one, though both are of reinforced concrete. A reinforced structure unwisely proportioned may prove expensive and dangerous. Reinforced concrete cannot be used blindly. The designer must carefully proportion the parts of his structure, and intelligently relate the concrete and the steel so that the two elements will best be able to resist the respective stresses for which they are intended. The metal must be properly imbedded so that it may be protected from destructive agencies like rust and corrosion, and the mass of concrete must be arranged to prevent unsightly cracks, which tend to be produced either by changes of temperature or by contraction of the material due to the setting of the cement. In short, the engineer must be thoroughly conversant with mechanical and elastic problems, and must thoroughly appreciate their relation to economical proportions of structure and cost. He must be able to decide when reinforced concrete may replace another type of structure, and when it may not. In bridge work, for example, he must know when to choose between a stone, a reinforced concrete or a metal arch; and in fact, in a broader view, he must decide when not to employ the arch principle at all, but rather some other type of structure such as the simple truss, the cantilever, or the cable.

There is a tendency at present among contractors, and also some engineers, to carry the use of reinforced concrete construction to the extreme. Many bold structures are constantly being proposed, and unfortunately many are being erected in which the design is dangerously skimped. Such procedure can only tend to bring into disrepute a type which has much inherent merit, but which is being greatly abused in the engineering world at present by being either carried to the extreme in boldness of proportions, or by being applied to conditions where a structure built of such

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materials is out of place. In the students' drawings, not here reproduced, it is evident upon inspection that the reinforced walls are of bold design; practically too bold. They serve the purpose of study, however, and the computations clearly show that reinforced walls of the counterfort type can be built at far less expense than gravity walls, and yet be of proportions which may be safely advocated by a careful and conservative designer.

It has already been stated that arched highway bridges exhibit very favorably the advantages of reinforced concrete. Perhaps they represent the most legitimate examples of the use of plain and reinforced concrete when compared to stone masonry and steel. All over this country, and still more so in Europe, reinforced arched highway bridges are being introduced, and are almost entirely replacing the older forms of iron, steel, and stone bridges. This they should easily do for ordinary span lengths, because the arch is of itself more pleasing to the eye than a metal truss; because its masonry is more durable, and because its cost is relatively not excessive. Indeed, considering the cost of maintenance, and the cost of renewals and painting for wood and stone designs, the structures of plain and reinforced concrete have much to be said in their favor.

A student's design cannot be now criticized nor discussed, because the work is only in progress. The wording of the suggested problem, however, will give an idea of what it is intended to show. The reinforced design will be compared to an alternative one in which the arched ribs, bridge floor and spandrel are of steel and the abutments, wing-walls and foundations of concrete and stone masonry. The problem is as follows:

Problem 22.—Course C. E. 20.—Design a concrete-steel arched highway bridge of a hundred and fifty feet clear span and thirty feet clear rise, using a multicentered intrados approximating a semi-ellipse and a circular extrados. Provide a thirty-foot asphalt roadway, and two cement sidewalks, each seven feet six inches in width. Design the rib

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of concrete steel, the spandrel wall of the same materials with expansion joints, and use an earth spandrel filling. Assume earth embankment approaches and design the abutments to suit.

Further detailed specifications are given in the original wording of the problem, but are omitted in this article.

In the development of the graduate course here partially outlined, the writer came into very close contact with reinforced concrete construction in California, and had emphasized to him in numerous ways the need for investigation to study, in reinforced work, the behavior of California cement products. The Department of Civil Engineering is now arranging a series of tests of reinforced concrete members. The work has President Wheeler's sanction, and has been brought before the attention of the public through his "Newsletter." The University will be assisted in making the tests by engineers and contractors of San Francisco and elsewhere, who will aid the studies by gifts of material, labor, and money. But all persons interested are cordially invited to give assistance or suggestions.

These tests will be prosecuted by officers of the Civil Engineering Department, assisted by graduate students who elect courses such as the one outlined. They will form, therefore, during the present year, an important and integral part of the graduate studies in Structural Engineering. The results of the investigations will be described in a bulletin to be published by the University.

There are many other courses beside "Concrete-steel" offered to graduate students in civil engineering, and those interested will be gladly informed of their scope and treatment upon application to the head of the department. A number of other structural courses given by Professor Soulé and the writer are listed; Professor Hyde, valuable studies in Sanitary and Municipal Engineering; and Mr. Hunt, advanced Experimentation in the Testing Laboratory.

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UNIVERSITY RECORD.

ALBERT H. ALLEN.

The appearance of the June number of the CHRONICLE has been delayed until September by the fact that it was found impossible to secure paper sooner.

The Alumni news is omitted from this number, but a full budget of items will appear in the September number, the first number of the ninth volume of the CHRONICLE.

THE EARTHQUAKE AND FIRE.

The University of California never had better occasion to congratulate itself upon its site than on the morning of April 18 of this year. The severe earthquake of that date was less violent upon the hillsides of Berkeley than upon the lower land nearer the bay. Considerable damage was done thoughout the town; innumerable chimneys were thrown down, and several brick buildings were rather badly injured. The new High School building suffered particularly by the falling of a chimney through the roof, and by the cracking of walls. The Public Library was also damaged to a considerable extent by the falling of chimneys and plaster.

The buildings on the campus of the University escaped with very slight damage. The expenditure of $600 repaired its cracked chimneys and fallen plaster. It is noteworthy that the new buildings of modern construction, California Hall, the Hearst Memorial Mining Building, the Greek

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Theatre, and the President's House, suffered no injury whatever from the shake. No stronger testimony could be desired of the solidity and excellence of construction of these buildings that are to be part of the University's permanent home.

In San Francisco the earthquake injured the Affiliated College buildings to the estimated extent of $8,600, through cracks in masonry, fallen chimneys and broken plaster. The collections of the Department of Anthropology suffered much less than might have been expected, its Greek vases and delicate specimens of priceless value escaping uninjured through wiring especially designed for protecting them from earthquake. Fortunately this wiring had just been completed. After repairs are made, the total loss to the collection will be about two thousand dollars, or less than one per cent of the value of the whole. Of this loss, at least one-half will be of reproductions, not of originals.

The Lick Observatory, on Mount Hamilton, escaped with a nominal loss of about $60.

The University suffered more severely from the fire that ensued in San Francisco. The Mark Hopkins Institute of Art, on the corner of California and Mason streets, was entirely destroyed, and but a small part of its contents was saved. Its rarest and best paintings were cut from their frames and taken to a place of safety, as was supposed, in the Flood mansion, with its spacious grounds, on the corner diagonally opposite. With the burning of the Flood mansion these paintings were later destroyed. A large number of canvases were cut from their frames and carried with great effort and risk to Berkeley.

The Johnson Building, on Sutter street, valued at $140,000, and the Sacramento Building, on First street, near Market, valued at $60,000, were entirely destroyed by the fire. These buildings were old, but substantial, had long belonged to the University, and together brought in an

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income of some $40,000 annually. The University carried very full insurance on both buildings. The Dental Clinic, with an equipment valued at $8,800, the dispensary of the Medical School, involving a loss of about $3,500, and equipment of the School of Pharmacy to the value of $1,100, were also destroyed.

In the destruction of the Italian-American Bank Building, in which John Galen Howard, Supervising Architect of the University, had his offices, were lost books on architecture of a value of about $600, and plans valued at $2,700. Through the devotion and courage of Mr. Henry A. Boese, a member of Mr. Howard's staff in San Francisco, who made his way into the building after it was supposed to have been abandoned, the priceless collection of the Hearst Plan drawings for the arrangement of the permanent buildings, the details of the surveys of the University grounds, and the still uncompleted plans for the Doe Library were saved to the University.

Other losses of the University were in the destruction of a shipment of chemical apparatus and supplies, lying in a warehouse at the time of the fire, a loss of $1016.22; printed matter from the University Printing Office, in a bindery at the time, valued at $675, and about one thousand volumes that were being bound for the University Library, a loss of about $2000.

Among the measures of relief taken by the special session of the State Legislature shortly after the disaster was an appropriation of $83,800 for the University. This amount was estimated to cover an assumed decline of about $30,000 in the revenue to the University from the two-cent tax for 1906–07; the income lost in the Johnson and Sacramento buildings from April to December, 1906; repairs to the Affiliated College buildings; and about $15,000 for new equipment necessary. This appropriation becomes available in August.

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While the fire in San Francisco destroyed property belonging to the Charles Doe Estate, bequeathed to the University for a Library building, the value of the property has not been impaired to the extent of more than $10,000. The buildings were well insured, and their removal has enhanced if anything the value of the land upon which they stood. Much of this is Market street property, in the vicinity of what promises to be one of the most important centers of the new San Francisco, at Van Ness avenue and Market street.

The same is true of the property from which the University was to receive the gift of $100,000 for the Boalt Law Building, as announced in the March number of the CHRONICLE. The value of the land has not been seriously impaired, and its sale at any time will produce much more than the amount of the University's interest in it.

THE STATE EARTHQUAKE COMMISSION.

Three days after the earthquake of April 18, Governor George C. Pardee appointed a Committee of Inquiry to study earthquake phenomena in all parts of the State of California, the committee consisting of Professor Andrew C. Lawson, of the University of California, Professor Grove K. Gilbert, of the United States Geological Survey, Professor Harry Fielding Reid, of Johns Hopkins University, Professor John Caspar Branner, of Stanford University, Professors Armin O. Leuschner and George Davidson, of the University of California, Professor Charles Burkhalter, of the Chabot Observatory, and Professor William Wallace Campbell, Director of the Lick Observatory. The committee promptly organized, electing Professor Lawson chairman, and Professor Leuschner secretary, under the name of the "State Earthquake Investigation Commission."

As the scope of its work in its preliminary stages, the Commission undertook the study of the origin, the posi-

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tion, and the character of the disturbance in the earth's crust which gave rise to the earthquake, these questions to be investigated by the location of fault scarps and other deformations of the surface of the ground or sea-bottom in the region affected; the collection of time records leading to the construction of coseismal curves; and the collection of intensity records and their classification in a graded scale, leading to the construction of isoseismal curves.

Sub-committees on Isoseismals and on Coseismals were appointed, among the number being Professor A. S. Eakle, Mr. Harry O. Wood, Professor R. S. Holway, Professor Joseph N. LeConte, Dr. R. T. Crawford, Dr. Burt L. Newkirk, and Mr. A. J. Champreux, of the University of California. Professor F. Omori and Professor Nakamura, of the Imperial University of Tokyo, were elected associate members of the Commission.

At the end of May the Commission submitted a preliminary report of its work, which was immediately printed and widely distributed. In the course of time an exhaustive final report of the Commission will be prepared, and published by the Carnegie Institution, of Washington.

THE BANCROFT LIBRARY.

Immediately after the fire in San Francisco, the Bancroft Library was removed to Berkeley, to the place prepared for it in California Hall. Here it has been provisionally installed upon the steel book shelves erected for the purpose, and the immense task of arranging and classifying the collection has been commenced, under the direction of Librarian Teggart.

The University will shortly secure the services of three teaching Fellows in History, who will devote two hours a day to work in the Bancroft Library, and to the preparation for publication of material from the original documents therein. Other duties of these Fellows will be to

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meet sections from the large lecture classes in history for more detailed and personal instruction than is possible in the lecture room.

The Bancroft Library will prove to be a treasure-house of material for scholars, and will furnish opportunity for many years and for many men in bringing to light its almost inexhaustible riches of historical matter pertaining to the western part of the United States, and particularly to California.

A valuable addition to the collection will soon be made in the form of a great mass of documentary material now being collected for an official history of the earthquake and fire of April, 1906. This material is now coming in to the Sub-committee on History of the Committee of Forty appointed by Mayor E. E. Schmitz to look to the welfare of San Francisco after the great disaster. From innumerable statements of personal experiences, and from proclamations and orders of civil and military authorities, the Sub-committee on History will compile a complete account of the disaster, to be written under the direction of Professor Henry Morse Stephens, of the University, and published by the War Department of the United States.

All the material collected will be deposited with the Bancroft Library, for the use of future historians, and also for the use of Professor Stephens' Seminary.

FACULTY CHANGES.

By action of the Board of Regents, promotions to the rank of Professor have been made in the cases of former Associate Professors Mellen W. Haskell and Thomas W. Page, of the departments of Mathematics and Mediaeval History respectively. Professor Clarence L. Cory has been designated Director of the Electric Light and Power Plant, in addition to reappointment as Professor of Electrical Engineering.

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Harry A. Overstreet has been promoted to the rank of Associate Professor of Philosophy, and John C. Merriam to that of Associate Professor of Palaeontology.

Promotions and appointments to the rank of Assistant Professor have been made as follows: H. C. Biddle, Chemistry; R. T. Crawford, Practical Astronomy; Robert Dupouey, French; F. G. Cottrell, Physical Chemistry; P. E. Goddard, Anthropology; E. E. Hall, Physics; A. L. Kroeber, Anthropology; G. D. Louderback, Geology and Mineralogy; R. O. Moody, Anatomy; W. C. Morgan, Chemistry; Lucy Sprague, English; W. H. Wright, Assistant Astronomer (Lick Observatory).

Other appointments are those of Dr. W. E. Hocking, as Instructor in Philosophy; T. B. Robertson, as Instructor in Physiology; F. M. Clapp, as Staff Lecturer in the department of University Extension; S. A. Barrett, as Museum Assistant in Anthropology; Clinton K. Judy, as Assistant in English; Elizabeth M. Haskell, Clerk to the Librarian; W. C. Hays, Assistant in Architecture.

George Davis Louderback, appointed Assistant Professor of Geology and Mineralogy, received the degree of A.B. from the University of California in 1896, and that of Ph.D. in 1899. Between 1896 and 1899 he held the positions here of Honorary Assistant in Chemistry, Fellow in Mineralogy, and Assistant in Mineralogy, and also served as Field Assistant of the United States Geological Survey. In 1900 Dr. Louderback was appointed Professor of Geology and Physics at the University of Nevada; in 1903 his title was changed to that of Professor of Geology and Mineralogy, which he held until his appointment at the University of California.

Miss Lucy Sprague, promoted to be Assistant Professor of English, is a graduate of Radcliffe College, with the class of 1900. Her first appointment in the University of California was as Reader in Economics, in 1903. She was made Reader, and later Assistant, in English, and in May, 1905,

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was appointed Instructor in English and Assistant to the Advisor.

Together with the rank of Assistant Professor of English, Miss Sprague receives this year the title of Dean of Women, and thus is appointed to occupy a new and independent position of authority and influence among the women of the University. Miss Sprague is the first woman to be given the rank of a Professor in the University of California.

Mr. Warren T. Clarke, Assistant Superintendent of University Extension in Agriculture, has tendered his resignation in order to accept a position in the University of Alabama.

Dr. Knight Dunlap, '99, formerly Instructor in Psychology, has resigned from his position in the University in order to accept a position in Johns Hopkins University.

Leaves of absence for the year 1906–07 have been given to W. D. Armes, Assistant Professor of English Literature, W. S. Ferguson, Assistant Professor of Greek and Roman History, A. C. Lawson, Professor of Geology and Mineralogy, Bernard Moses, Professor of History and Political Science, W. J. Raymond, Assistant Professor of Physics, and Jerome B. Landfield, Instructor in History.

Leaves for the first half of the coming year have been granted to R. H. Loughridge, Assistant Professor of Agricultural Geology and Agricultural Chemistry, and to G. R. Noyes, Assistant Professor of English and Slavic Philology. For the second half of the year, leave of absence is given to G. E. Colby, Assistant Professor of Agricultural Chemistry.

Mr. Landfield has already gone to Russia, where he will spend the next six months in studying the critical conditions there. His familiarity with the country and the language will enable him to gather at first hand a valuable amount of historical material.

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DEATH OF PROFESSOR MacCALLUM.

John Bruce MacCallum, Assistant Professor of Physiology, died at his home in Berkeley on April 5. His last three years have been spent in an unremitting struggle with tuberculosis, in the effort to complete the work he had planned. During the last few months of his life Professor MacCallum was unable to continue his work in the laboratory, but devoted every moment that his strength allowed to the preparation of his notes and manuscript. His work was left so nearly finished that it may be said to have been successfully completed.

During the year in which he was Assistant Professor of Physiology his courage and devotion to the duties of an investigator won for Dr. MacCallum the esteem and admiration of all his associates.

RESIGNATION OF PROFESSOR MOORE.

Professor Ernest C. Moore, Assistant Professor of Education, has been elected City Superintendent of Schools of Los Angeles, and will take up the duties of that position in the fall of this year. Professor Moore has been connected with the University for eight years, for most of that time in the Department of Education. He is a native of Ohio, has taught in almost every grade from the kindergarten to the university, has spent some time in college settlement work in Chicago, and holds the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of Chicago. Dr. Moore is also president of the State Board of Charities, and for two years has been Dean of the Summer Session of the University of California.

RETURNING PROFESSORS.

Professor Lincoln Hutchinson returned to Berkeley in May, after a leave of absence of a little over two years. The first year Professor Hutchinson spent in London, con-

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tinuing statistical investigations into the commercial relations of the Spanish-American nations, availing himself of the facilities offered for the work by the Royal Statistical Society, which put its library at his disposal. At the beginning of the second year Professor Hutchinson was commissioned by the Department of Commerce and Labor of the National Government to go to South America as the special agent of the department to report on trade conditions. A little over one year was passed in visiting the more important commercial centers of South and Central America.

It is Professor Hutchinson's impression that the trade of the United States in South America is growing far more successfully than is commonly supposed. It is in the purchase of manufactured articles that the greatest growth of Spanish-American trade has shown itself, and the indications are that exporters in this country are rapidly discovering the necessity of studying the needs of the Spanish-American market.

Professor Hutchinson will resume his regular work in the College of Commerce, and will offer for graduate students a course of research work dealing with the trade relations between the United States and Spanish America, devoting particular attention this year to the Argentine Republic. Through the courtesy of various foreign governments the University Library now has one of the best collections in the country of official statistical material relating to trade. These, with various trade journals, Board of Trade publications, consular reports, etc., will be made the basis of the study.

Dr. James T. Allen, Assistant Professor of Greek, returned this summer from a year's leave of absence, most of which was passed in Europe. Dr. Allen attended lectures and worked in the libraries of the German universities at Göttingen and München, and later visited Italy and Greece. In Greece he availed himself of the privileges of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, and

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made extended tours through the Peloponnesus and to Delphi and other places of archaeological or historical interest. Much time was spent in the museums of Athens, Olympia, Delphi, and in the leading museums of Italy, Germany, and England. Dr. Allen visited Oxford during "Eights" week, or the week of the English inter-university boat races, and was also present in Athens at the Olympic Games this spring.

MEDICAL SCHOOL CHANGES.

A feature of the college year to begin in August will be the removal to the University in Berkeley of the instruction in the first two years of the College of Medicine. The work in Anatomy, Bacteriology, Physiology, Pathology, and other subjects presented to the medical students during the first half of their professional course will hereafter be conducted in Berkeley. The Rudolph Spreckels Physiological Laboratory will afford the facilities for instruction in Physiology and Pathology, under the direction of Professors Jacques Loeb and Alonzo Englebert Taylor. The Bacteriological Laboratory in Berkeley is also equipped to serve the needs of medical students. The change will serve to throw greater emphasis on the academic foundation for further study of medicine, as the students will be brought into contact with instructors whose time is entirely given to instruction and research. The inspiration of these conditions will be of undoubted value to future physicians.

It will be possible for students of the University to combine their last two undergraduate years with the first two of the medical course, thus receiving the degree of B.S. at the end of four years of study, and the degree of M.D. after two additional years in that part of the Medical Department which will remain in San Francisco.

The affiliation with the University of the San Francisco Polyclinic (the Postgraduate Medical Department of the University of California) was dissolved on March 13

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by action of the Board of Regents, with the consent of the trustees of the Polyclinic.

THE UNIVERSITY FARM.

The Commission appointed to select the University Farm, for the purchase of which an appropriation of $150,000 was made by the last regular session of the Legislature, brought its search for a site to a close by deciding upon a tract of 780 acres near Davisville, Yolo County. This decision was reached on April 5, after the Commission had spent several months in considering offers of property in many parts of the State, and in visiting the sites offered.

The cost of the land to the State was $104,250. The balance of the appropriation will be used for the erection of buildings and for equipment.

In connection with the purchase of this farm, the following statement by Professor E. J. Wickson, of the College of Agriculture, is of interest:—

"The site chosen is the most available from all points of view and most thoroughly representative of irrigated interior valley conditions which the law contemplated. It is fortunate that a decision has been reached and that the University can proceed with the equipment and utilization of this the most important single contribution which the State has ever made to the development of agricultural education. It is fortunate also that the commission has answered what seemed the clear, popular demand that the location be representative of the greatest open area of the State, rather than convenient for the University. Convenience to the University is, in fact, a matter which should not be too narrowly considered. The University is, and should be, at home everywhere in the State. A grand institution which is studying stars from the top of Mount Hamilton, studying marine life at Pacific Grove and San Diego Bay, studying trees at Chico and Santa Monica, studying plant diseases in the Sacramento Valley and at Whittier,

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studying fertilizers by use of land at half a dozen widely separated places in Southern California, studying plants and the use of them everywhere that the University investigators can find places to grow them, killing insects at Visalia, San José, Concord, and Watsonville, and studying the growth of grapes and the making of wine in San Joaquin and Fresno counties—surely an institution thus localized and distributed in its work can find a home for one of its activities in such a central and accessible district as southern Yolo County.

"The University should not be centralized. It should do everything it can for the people in the place where it can be best done and such a course will make it solid with the people. The Commission has reached a decision for which every one should be thankful."

THE NEW PATHOLOGICAL EXPERIMENT STATION.

Shortly after the decision was made as to the site of the University Farm a location was chosen for the Experiment Station and Laboratory of Plant Pathology. This station was provided for by an appropriation of $30,000 at the last regular session of the State Legislature, but as the appropropriation made no provision for the purchase of land it became necessary to secure a site in some other way.

The citizens of Whittier by subscription generously provided the land upon which will be built the laboratory, the site consisting of about an acre of ground in Whittier. A very favorable offer from the Huntington Park Association further secures for the University the use for twenty years, rent free, of about twenty acres of land near Riverside to be used as an experiment station. The equipment of the laboratory and of the experiment station is now under way.

THE KEARNEY BEQUEST.

By the will of the late M. Theo Kearney of Fresno the University of California will come into possession of one of the finest tracts of land in the San Joaquin Valley, if not

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in the entire State. The land in question consists of about 5,500 acres of the famous Fruit Vale Estate, near Fresno, and is worth in the neighborhood of one million dollars.

Mr. Kearney commenced his active life as a real estate agent in San Francisco, but left the city for Fresno in the early seventies, at a time when that part of the State was practically undeveloped. In Fresno he devoted himself to the sale of agricultural lands, later representing the Bank of California in colonizing its properties. Becoming interested in what was known as the Fruit Vale Estate, for many years he gave his entire time to its development. More recently Mr. Kearney became the first organizer of the raisin industry, and for several years was at the head of the association composed of the Fresno raisin-growers. Mr. Kearney died at sea in May, while on his way to Liverpool.

To go to the Kearney estate, one leaves Fresno by the Kearney boulevard, a magnificent roadway lined with palm trees and flowering oleanders, restricted to the use of light vehicles, all teaming being forbidden. For ten miles the boulevard runs, to the stone gateway and lodge at the entrance to the Fruit Vale Estate. Within the gate, winding avenues lead to the Chateau Fresno Park, in the heart of the estate. The park consists of two hundred acres of ornamental grounds, laid out with the best skill of landscape gardening, and with rare art to enhance the color effects of foliage. The park contains every variety of fruit tree, and acres of rose gardens.

The Fruit Vale Estate has some three thousand acres devoted to alfalfa, and twelve hundred acres of vineyard, besides many acres of citrus and deciduous fruits of all kinds. Every acre of the estate is arable land, in a high state of cultivation.

The buildings of the estate, aside from a two-story adobe ranch house, consist of dormitories for single men and cottages for families of employes; a large packing house on a railroad spur, from which are shipped yearly hundreds

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of cars of fruit; a garage, stables for driving horses, and barns for the work horses and other stock; a slaughter house, a butcher shop, and a general store; machine houses, tank houses and pumping plant; and every facility for the management of a model ranch along the most modern and approved lines.

President Wheeler made the following statement regarding the bequest:—

"The bequest of Mr. Kearney represents a wise use of a fortune. I may assume, I think, that the Regents will scarcely hesitate to assume the trust involved. Though this trust is primarily to be exercised for the advantage of a single locality, Fresno, it must be remembered that it ultimately and purely inures to the benefit of the whole State of California. While the offices of administration and the formal instruction of the University are located definitely at Berkeley, the University in a broad sense occupies the entire State and knows no local residence. It is at the service of the whole State and everywhere present within its boundaries.

"Fresno is the natural center of a great and positively agricultural domain. There can be no doubt that scientific results in many lines of activity could be and will be secured from a regularly established experiment station at this place. Mr. Kearney was very anxious to have the University farm established here and offered to give a tract of land for that purpose. The offer was not accepted by the farm commission because the conception of the purposes to which the farm was to be adapted involved the points of view according to which the site which has now been adopted at Davisville was more suitable. The climate was believed to be better adapted to the maintenance of a secondary school such as is contemplated in connection with the farm, and the situation of Davisville offered better accessibility to the people of the north and south alike, as well

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as to the regular students in the Agricultural Department of the University.

"With the establishment of a station at Fresno the State will now be wonderfully well equipped. The Pathological Station which, under provision of the last Legislature, was provided for Southern California, will be situated at Riverside, with an adjunct laboratory for investigation of certain plant diseases at Whittier. Therewith Southern California is admirably provided.

"The station at Fresno will provide for the southern part of the great valley. Davisville will provide for the central and northern sections. The prospect for a greatly enlarged activity in agricultural experimentation has been suddenly enlarged. For the next year the University has as new material, not only the farm at Davisville, the station at Riverside, and the station at Fresno, but the United States money to be derived from the Adams bill, $24,000 a year for the advancing of scientific work in agriculture.

"Hitherto the means at our disposal for the agricultural work have been ludicrously inadequate to the vast expanse of the State and the variety of its agricultural needs and difficulties. Evidently we are, with the year 1907, to enter upon a new era."

THE TEBTUNIS PAPYRI.

Word has been received from Dr. Bernard P. Grenfell, of Oxford, England, that the second volume of the series of University of California Publications in Graeco-Roman Archaeology, being Part II of the Tebtunis Papyri, is now about ready for the press, and will probably be issued in November or December.

The Tebtunis Papyri will be published in three volumes in all, under the editorial direction of Dr. Grenfell, and of Dr. Arthur S. Hunt, both of Oxford. The expenses of publications are being met by the generosity of Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst, whose support has made possible the investigations

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carried on in the name of the University of California in Egypt, Peru, and among the Indians of North America. The first volume of this series appeared in 1902, and contained 674 pages and nine plates. The second volume will contain about 450 pages.

The papyri forming the subject of this series were found by Dr. Grenfell and Dr. Hunt in the winter of 1899–1900 at Umm el Baragat (the ancient Tebtunis) in the south of the Fayum. A large collection was there made, consisting of papyri from the cartonage of mummies, belonging to the third and second centuries B. C.; those from the mummies of crocodiles, belonging with a few exceptions to the end of the second or to the early part of the first century B. C.; and those found in the ruins of the town, which nearly all belong to the first three centuries of the Christian era. The first volume of the series was devoted almost entirely to the papyri taken from the mummies of crocodiles. This creature, deified under the name of Sobk, was held in particular reverence in that portion of ancient Egypt now known as the Fayum. Crocodile tombs were numerous, and the act of a workman, disgusted at finding a row of crocodiles where he expected sarcophagi, disclosed by impatiently breaking one of them in pieces that it was wrapped in sheets of papyrus. Several thousand of the creatures were unearthed in the next few weeks, about two per cent. of them containing papyri.

The Greek papyri obtained in this way were of great size, but only very exceptionally of a literary character. The scantiness of classical fragments, only four in number, was compensated by the great value of the official documents discovered for information regarding the internal history of Egypt under the later Ptolemies. The earliest papyri date from the reign of Epiphanes (documents of about 201 B. C.), the bulk of the collection falling within the period from 120 to 90 B. C., while that of latest date belongs to B. C. 56.

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The second volume, soon to appear, will be devoted to an account of the excavations and miscellaneous antiquities and of the papyri of the Roman period, discovered at the site of ancient Tebtunis.

PERUVIAN ANTIQUITIES.

A shipment of thirty-three cases of Peruvian antiquities was received in March at the Museum of the Department of Anthropology at the Affiliated Colleges, completing the collection made by Dr. Uhle for this department. This is the last shipment of antiquities which will be permitted from Peru, owing to regulations made by that government since these collections were formed.

Dr. Uhle has been in charge of the archaeological explorations of the University of California in Peru since 1899, and has but recently resigned to accept a position under the Peruvian Government as director of the National Museum of Archaeology. His investigations in Peru have been made with a special view to establishing the chronology of the different types of culture found, and have made probable a succession of from four to six periods of civilization in the various localities, tracing for the first time a definite historical sequence in ancient Peruvian history. Collections were obtained from the vicinity of Trujillo and Huamachuco in Northern Peru, at several localities in Southern Peru, especially the valleys of Chincha, Ica, and Pisco, and at Ancon, Chancay, and other places on the coast.

The present shipment, which contains many valuable pieces of pottery, textiles, and other antiquities, including mummies, showing the different methods of burial, was obtained in Southern Peru, some exceptionally fine pieces being found at Nazca. The final excavations were made twelve miles above Lima, where the oldest type of civilization of the Lima Valley was discovered.

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THE SENIOR HALL.

The men of the Class of 1907 on their return to Berkeley in August will find the new Senior Hall ready for their use. This building, the gift of the Order of the Golden Bear, will be, with the possible exception of the Greek Theatre, the most unique feature of the University. Its cost will be about $4,000, and it is built of rough redwood logs of large size, from plans by Professor John Galen Howard. In designing the structure Professor Howard made a study of actual log cabins in the mountains of California, and the erection of the building has been under the direction of a builder who has constructed log cabins in Alaska and in the mountains of Idaho. Senior Hall may therefore be regarded as a sort of apotheosis of this type of architecture.

The interior will be given entirely to one large room, measuring sixty by thirty feet, with a huge open fire-place of clinker brick at one end. The arch of this fire-place will admit of a man standing upright within it. The walls will be of logs in their natural state, with the bark on, and all the pilasters, roof trusses, chairs, tables, and other fittings will be in keeping with the general plan.

Senior Hall is to be dedicated to the use of the men of the Senior Class for their meetings, smokers, singing, and the like. It is not to be, however, a general lounging place, but will rather be regarded as the home and fireside of the class, to become associated with its best traditions. It is expected that for certain gatherings the hall will also welcome Alumni.

COMMENCEMENT DAY.

Owing to the disastrous effects of the fire in San Francisco in April, the Class of 1906 took its leave of the University under unusual circumstances. No Class Day exercises were held, with the exception of the Pilgrimage, and the other activities of Commencement Week were reduced to their lowest terms.

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On Commencement Day, May 16, 1906, degrees were conferred making a total of 553 for the year 1905–06. Of this total, however, sixty-three degrees were conferred in December, 1905. Of all the degrees of the Academic year, 464 were taken in the Colleges at Berkeley, and 89 by students in the professional departments of Medicine, Pharmacy, Dentistry, and Law.

The distribution of the degrees is shown by the following table:—

College	B.S.		M.S.		Ph.D.	
	Dec.	May	Dec.	May	Dec.	May
Chemistry	2	10		1		
Civil Engineering	1	32		1		
Mining	1	36				
Mechanics	1	21				
Agriculture	3	11	1			
Commerce	3	22				
Natural Science	3	27	1	5	1	2
	B.A.		M.A.			
Letters	10	54		13	1	2
	B.L.		M.L.		J.D.	
Social Science	34	142		10		3
Pharmacy (Ph.G.)		26				
" (Ph.B.)		3				
Dentistry (D.D.S.)		24				
Law (LL.B.)		16				
Medicine (M.D.)		20 (of which 1 in December).				

The higher degrees were conferred as follows:—

The Degree of Juris Doctor (College of Social Sciences) upon

Robert Lafayette McWilliams.....Ashland, Oregon
B.L. 1904.
Thesis: The Legality of Boycotts.

Emmy Marcuse Marcuse .....Oakland
Thesis: Presumption of Fraud Attending a Gift from Wife to Husband under § 158 of the Civil Code of California.

Carlos Greenleaf White .....Oakland
B.L. 1904.
Thesis: Correlative Rights in Percolating Water.

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The Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (College of Natural Sciences) upon

Sebastian Albrecht (Astrophysics, Physics, Mathematics).....
B.S. (University of Wisconsin) 1900. Mt. Hamilton
Thesis: I. A Spectrographic Study of the Fourth Class Variable Stars Y Ophiuchi and T Vulpeculae. II. On the Distortions of Photographic Films on Glass.

Nathaniel Lyon Gardner (Botany, Physiology, Zoology).....Berkeley
B.S. (University of Washington) 1900; M.S. 1903.
Thesis: Cytological Studies in Cyanophyceae.

Charles David Snyder (Physiology, Zoology, Chemistry).....
A.B. (Stanford University) 1896; M.S. 1904. San Francisco
Thesis: The Influence of Temperature upon the Heart Rhythm in the Light of the Law of Chemical Reaction Velocity as Influenced by Temperature.

The Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (College of Letters) upon

William Hardy Alexander (Latin, Greek, Oscan and Umbrian)....
A.B. (University of Toronto) 1899; M.A. 1900. Ottawa, Canada
Thesis: Adversaria Critica: Suetonius de Vita Caesarum lib. VIII.

Benjamin Putnam Kurtz (English, Semitic Languages, Sanskrit)
A.B. 1901. Oakland
Thesis: Studies in the Marvellous.

Ivan Mortimer Linforth (Latin, Greek, Latin Semasiology)....Berkeley
A.B. 1900; M.A. 1901.
Thesis: Semasiological Studies in Virgil.

The various University prizes for 1905–06 were awarded to the following:—

BONNHEIM DISSERTATION PRIZES.

FOUNDED BY MR. ALBERT BONNHEIM.

Dan Hadsell, of the Class of 1906, College of Social Sciences.
Harry Edwin Squire, of the Class of 1906, College of Civil Engineering.

BONNHEIM DISCUSSION PRIZE.

FOUNDED BY MR. ALBERT BONNHEIM.

Dan Hadsell, of the Class of 1906, College of Social Sciences.

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BRYCE HISTORICAL ESSAY PRIZE.

FOUNDED BY REGENT RUDOLPH JULIUS TAUSSIG.

Robert Ream Rankin, of the Class of 1907, College of Social Sciences.

CHARLES BUTTERS ESSAY PRIZE.

FOUNDED BY MR. CHARLES BUTTERS, OF THE CLASS OF 1879.

Julius Klein, of the Class of 1907, College of Social Sciences.

UNIVERSITY MEDAL.

FOUNDED BY FRIENDS OF THE UNIVERSITY, AND AWARDED ANNUALLY TO THE MOST DISTINGUISHED GRADUATE OF THE YEAR.

Spencer Cochrane Browne, Jr., of the College of Mining.

GRADUATE SCHOLARSHIPS AND FELLOWSHIPS.

The following Graduate Scholarships and Fellowships have been awarded for 1906–07:—

JAMES M. GOEWEY SCHOLARSHIP.

FOUNDED BY THE FAMILY OF THE LATE JAMES M. GOEWEY.

Charles Edwin Weaver ..... Berkeley
B.S. 1904.

HILGARD MEMORIAL SCHOLARSHIP.

FOUNDED BY PROFESSOR EUGENE WOLDEMAR HILGARD, IN MEMORY OF HIS DECEASED WIFE.

Augustus Griffin ..... Visalia
B.S. 1906.

FRANK M. PIXLEY SCHOLARSHIP.

FOUNDED BY MRS. AMELIA V. R. PIXLEY.

Matthew Christopher Lynch ..... Cordelia
B.L. 1906.

FLOOD FELLOWSHIP IN ECONOMICS.

FOUNDED BY MISS JENNIE L. FLOOD.

Samuel Hovey Beach ..... Klamath Falls, Oregon
B.L. 1906.

LECONTE MEMORIAL SCHOLARSHIPS.

FOUNDED BY THE ALUMNI ASSOCIATION, IN MEMORY OF PROFESSORS JOHN AND JOSEPH LECONTE.

Alma Barnett ..... Berkeley
B.L. 1905; M.L. 1906.

*Samuel Alfred Barrett ..... Berkeley
B.S. 1905; M.S. 1906.

* Mr. Barrett later resigned this scholarship to accept another appointment.

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UNIVERSITY RELIEF WORK.

In the interval between the closing of the regular session and the opening of the Summer Session many of the members of the University faculty were engaged in active relief or reconstruction work in San Francisco. President Wheeler was appointed a member of the Committee of Forty, which has general supervision of the work of reconstruction; Eugene R. Hallett, Secretary to the President, acted as Secretary to Dr. Edward T. Devine, the special representative of President Roosevelt and the National Red Cross; A. H. Allen, Secretary of the Editorial Committee, was Secretary of the Berkeley Relief Committee; W. J. Cooper, President of the Class of 1906, and a member of the History Department, is Assistant Secretary at the National Red Cross headquarters; Professor C. L. Cory, Dean of the College of Mechanics, is interested in the work of reconstruction; C. Derleth, Jr., Assistant Professor of Structural Engineering, is an investigator of structural materials; J. W. Flinn, Superintendent of the University Printing Office, had charge of the Red Cross printing; Professor John Galen Howard, head of the Department of Architecture, is advisor to the Reconstruction Committee and a member of the committee having in charge the question of the widening of the streets, etc.; A. C. Lawson, Professor of Mineralogy and Geology, is chairman of the commission appointed by Governor Pardee to investigate the causes of the earthquake; and J. N. LeConte, Assistant Professor of Mechanical Engineering, and Professor A. O. Leuschner, Director of the Students' Observatory, have been associated with Professor Lawson in this work; W. C. Mitchell, Associate Professor of Commerce, acted as assistant to Dr. Edward T. Devine; Carleton H. Parker, Secretary for University Extension and staff lecturer, is a member of the History Committee; Carl C. Plehn, Dean of the

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College of Commerce, is head of the registration and statistics department of the Red Cross; Dr. G. F. Reinhardt, Professor of Hygiene and Medical Examiner, is sanitary officer at Berkeley; Professor Henry Morse Stephens, Director of University Extension, is at the head of the History Committee; Professor Irving Stringham, Dean of the College of Social Sciences, was chairman of the University Relief Committee; James Sutton, Recorder of the Faculties, was a member of the Executive Committee of the University Relief; Dr. A. H. Gray was superintendent of the camp maintained on California Field until the end of May; Professor Elmer E. Hall was manager of the supply stores of the Berkeley Relief Committee, assisted by Professor William Popper; Professor M. E. Jaffa had charge of the commissary department which for several weeks prepared and served meals for the homeless encamped on California Field. Many other members of the faculty worked officially or unofficially to do their part in solving some of the great problems which faced the people of San Francisco.

UNIVERSITY CADETS ON DUTY.

Captain J. T. Nance, Commandant of the University Cadets, took the student regiment to San Francisco on the day of the great fire, where a strip of territory in the residence district, twenty-seven blocks long and nine blocks wide, was placed under their protection. The cadets remained on duty in San Francisco until the following Friday, when they were relieved and returned to Berkeley at the request of the citizens of Berkeley, who desired their services to guard the property on this side of the bay. Their work in San Francisco called forth the friendly praise of the regular troops and police, to whom they rendered every possible assistance.

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THE SYMPHONY CONCERTS.

The fifth Symphony Concert was given on the afternoon of April 12th by an orchestra of one hundred musicians, before an audience of 6,000 people, in the Greek Theatre. The programme was entirely from Wagner's works, as follows:—

FIFTH CONCERT, APRIL 12.

Prelude and Glorification: "Parsifal."
Transformation Scene, and Finale of the First Act: "Parsifal."
Good Friday Spell: "Parsifal."
Wotan's Farewell, and Magic Fire Scene: "Walküre."
Siegfried's Death March: "Die Götterdämmerung."
Overture: "Tannhäuser."

The sixth Symphony Concert was to have been held on the afternoon of April 26th, and the programme prepared consisted of the rendition of Handel's "Messiah" by the full Symphony Orchestra and the University Chorus, which had been rehearsing for this event since last September. This programme was made impossible by the cessation of University work on April 18th. Notwithstanding the discouraging outlook, Professor Wolle gathered together some seventy-five members of his Symphony Orchestra, and on the afternoon of Tuesday, May 15th, gave the following programme in the Greek Theatre:—

SIXTH CONCERT, MAY 15.

Overture: "Ruins of Athens" ..... *Beethoven*
The Fifth Symphony ..... *Beethoven*
Allegro con brio. Andante con moto. Scherzo: Allegro. Finale: Allegro.
"Peer Gynt" ..... *Grieg*
Dawn. Ase's Death. Anitra's Dance. In the Hall of the Mountain King.
Waldweben, from the music-drama, "Siegfried" ..... *Wagner*
Nut-Cracker Suite ..... *Tschaikowsky*
I. Ouverture miniature.
II. Danses caractéristiques:
(*a*) Marche. (*b*) Danse de la Fée Dragée. (*c*) Trépac, danse russe. (*d*) Danse arabe. (*e*) Danse chinoise. (*f*) Danse des mirlitons.
III. Valse des fleurs.

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Arrangements were made for a series of three concerts by the Symphony Orchestra during the summer session of the University, with concerts of chamber music in alternate weeks by the Minetti String Quartette.

The concluding Symphony Concerts were preceded by descriptive and explanatory lectures given by Mr. W. J. McCoy. Mr. McCoy's lectures analyzed the composition of the orchestra, the function and position of the instruments, and the theme upon which the movements of the various symphonies were constructed. The matter of the lecture was illustrated by means of the orchestrelle, a large mechanical organ.

THE HALF-HOUR OF MUSIC.

The Sunday afternoon Half-hour of Music has been given as follows since March 11:—

March 18.—The League of the Cross Cadets' Band.

March 25.—The Swedish Singing Society of San Francisco.

April 1.—The Arion Singing Society of San Francisco, Mr. F. Zech, Jr., director, Dr. S. Schalkammer soloist, and Miss Juanita Zech accompanist, in a programme of German songs.

April 8.—Mrs. Rudolph Schaffter, soprano; Mrs. Marian E. B. Robinson, contralto; Mr. Lowell W. Kenney, tenor; Miss Grace Freeman, violin; Miss M. A. Lewis, 'cello; Miss Grace Rollins, piano; and Mr. Delapine, organ; under the direction of Mrs. Louise Marriner Campbell.

April 15.—The De Koven Club, Mr. Clinton R. Morse, '96, tenor, director, and soloist; Mr. Wm. C. Davis, '07, violinist, accompanied by Mr. Roscoe Warren Lucy, pianist, in a special programme of Easter music. An audience of 7,000 people was present.

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The Half-hour of Music was discontinued during the Summer Session.

On the evening of Tuesday, April 10, a very enjoyable Moonlight Concert was given by the University of California Cadet Band before a large audience in the Greek Theatre.

SARA BERNHARDT IN THE GREEK THEATRE.

On the afternoon of Thursday, May 17th, a very large audience witnessed the production of Racine's "Phédre" in the Greek Theatre by Mme. Sara Bernhardt and her company. This is, perhaps, the most significant event in the history of the Greek Theatre in connection with the development of the dramatic interests of the University. The tragedy was magnificently rendered, and the most profound impression produced upon every one who saw it.

UNIVERSITY MEETINGS.

The University meeting of April 6th was addressed by President William J. Tucker, of Dartmouth College, and by Dr. Charles R. Brown, of the First Congregational Church of Oakland. President Tucker spoke on Making Connection with One's Generation. Dr. Brown's topic was The Law of Growth.

President Tucker came to California to deliver the series of Earl lectures before the Pacific Theological Seminary.

The last University meeting for the Academic year was held in the Greek Theatre on the morning of May 15. The speakers were Prentiss N. Gray, President of the Associated Students for 1905–06; William J. Cooper, President of the Class of 1906; Ralph Palmer Merritt, President-elect of the Associated Students; Phoebe M. Binney, President of the Associated Women Students; Sue Adele Ross, Permanent Secretary of the Class of 1906; Harry L. Stoddard, Brayton S. Norton, Albert J. Coogan, Ira D. Wheeler, Burnham P. Griffiths, and Henry W. Beecher, all of the graduating class.

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SUMMER SESSION.

The Summer Session for 1906 opened on June 25th. The registration on the first day was 644. Later registration brought the total number of students to 706.

Professor Ernest Carroll Moore, recently appointed Superintendent of Schools in Los Angeles, was the Dean of the Summer Session.

A new feature of the work offered this year was a Summer School in Library Methods.

SIGMA XI ELECTIONS.

The Sigma Xi Society elected eighteen new members at its meeting on March 30, as follows:—

From the Faculty: Warren T. Clarke, S. S. Maxwell, T. B. Robertson, C. G. Hyde, and K. W. W. Ostwald.

From the Graduate Students: D. W. Davis, H. D. Densmore, and E. B. Babcock.

From the Senior Class: H. W. Beecher, S. C. Browne, Jr., J. A. Burgess, H. D. Dewell, E. S. Larsen, Jr., W. H. Markley, W. A. Schmidt, H. G. Sharp, A. F. Dwyer, and H. W. Taylor.

MIM KAPH MIM AT STANFORD.

A request was received in April for the establishment of a chapter of the chemistry honor society, Mim Kaph Mim, at Stanford University. This society was organized at the University of California seven years ago. Only Seniors in the College of Chemistry are eligible, and scholarship is one of the necessary qualifications. A Stanford chapter was organized under the direction of Professor Stillman of that University.

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ATHLETICS.

The spring athletic season was badly interrupted by the earthquake and its consequences. Two of the intercollegiate baseball games had been played, Stanford winning the first on April 7th, and California the second on April 14th. The concluding game was scheduled for April 28th, but was not played. No arrangements have yet been made for deciding the dubious outcome of the baseball season.

On the track, the first Intercollegiate Freshman Track Meet was held on March 31st, and won by California with a score of 73½ to Stanford's 48½. The 'Varsity Track Meet was scheduled for April 21st, but was not held. A track meet was held early in April, in which by a score of 72 to 50 California defeated a team from the colleges of Southern California.

NOTES.

The budget of the University for the year 1906–07 calls for the expenditure of the sum of $857,522.27, including the regular allotment to the Permanent Improvement Fund. Of the total, $493,913.30 is appropriated for salaries in the administrative offices and in the departments of instruction.

During the early part of the vacation a trunk sewer was laid through the grounds from the Hearst Memorial Mining Building to the entrance at the corner of Center and Oxford streets. This trunk sewer forms part of the permanent plan for the University, and was constructed at a cost of about $6,000, appropriated from the Permanent Improvement Fund.

The Regents have appropriated from the Anthropology funds given by Mrs. Hearst the sum of $500 for the furtherance of Anthropological investigations in California during the coming year, to be conducted under the direction of Dr. R. B. Dixon, of the Peabody Museum, Harvard University.

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